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THE DEBATE AND THE DIVISION.

A s might have been expected, "the dodge" has succeeded. The heterogeneous elements of a disunited Opposition have been combined for a moment to defeat the cause which they profess to espouse. Sir E. BULWER LYTTON, in one of his novels, has very profoundly remarked that it is a popular error to have fixed upon night as the season of conscience and remorse. It is the "next morning," as he has well ob-served, when the sense of an irretrievable fault overwhelms the slaves of passion with the sentiment of blank dismay at the consequences of deeds which they can no longer recall. Of the 330 gentlemen who have been constrained, by various and inconsistent considerations, to shatter the last chance of a reasonable and speedy settlement of the question of Reform, we believe that a very considerable majority already look back to the work at which they have assisted with no very complacent reflections. We suppose that in the history of parties a more unwilling majority was never marshalled by a whip in a division which their conscience condemned and their patriotism dissuaded. We must wait till Monday night to learn the whole consequences to which the obstinate selfishness of an unscrupulous faction has devoted the country. We pretend to no arts of prophecy, and we feel little disposed to indulge in idle conjecture. We shall confine ourselves for the present to the duty of reviewing the course of a debate on which the House of Commons has very little ground to

congratulate itself.

The principal figures who stand out in the discussion on the Opposition side are Lord John Russell and Lord Pal-MERSTON. Of Lord John Russell, and the course which he has pursued, we have sufficiently spoken. We return to MERSTON. Of Lord John Russell, and the course which he has pursued, we have sufficiently spoken. We return to him only to note the explanation tendered by the Solicitor-General. There was certainly one word in the speech of Sir Hugh Cairns which required apology and retractation. Great as are the faults of Lord John Russell's public career, there is no man to whom views of "private advantage" could be imputed with more injustice. has acted on this occasion in a spirit of restless ambition and of party rashness is an accusation which he will find it more difficult to repel, and of which the country at some future day will demand at his hands some better justification than has been yet tendered. In a speech not otherwise marked by his ordinary ability, Mr. DISRAELI touched the career of the noble Lord with excellent taste and great severity. apostrophe wanted nothing which the art of the orator or the truth of his theme could add to so finished a composition. But, great as are the errors charged upon Lord J. RUSSELL, it is due, not to his character alone, but to that of the House of Commons, to admit that, even in the excesses of faction, he has known how to maintain the dignity of statesmanship and to preserve the decencies of Parliament. Unhappily for the reputation of our representative institutions, there is one prominent public man who has not scrupled to degrade and outrage both. In a debate not remarkable for the sincerity of the sentiments expressed, or the straightforwardness of the conduct pursued, the speech of which Lord PALMERSTON thought fit to deliver himself will stand recorded as a performance which has done more probably than any act which lies within the memory of living men to lower the character of the House of Commons, and to sink the reputation of public men in the estimation of the country. At a period of unexampled public embarrassment, and in a great constitutional crisis, the nation had a right to expect from any man who pretends to its confidence, and aspires to its guidance, the benefit of honest conseals and on unempirically religious religion. Under such eight counsels and an unambiguous policy. Under such circumstances and at such a moment, what is the spirit in sich this mature and public-spirited politician addresses neels to a question on which (as Mr. Roebuck very truly

said) the fortunes of England, and therein the happiness of mankind, in no light degree hang. From gentlemen of the youth and inexperience of Mr. Bernal Osborne and Sir R. Peel, we accept with toleration, if not with gratitude, the well-pondered impromptus which enliven the drowsiness of a protracted debate. But there are certain parts which SHAKSPEARE has taught us do not well become an age which Lord Palmerston has long since passed. We are told that the speech was entertaining, and that the House of Commons laughed consumedly. We think it highly probable and not at all unnatural. But successes of this kind are equivocal. Nor does the final respect of the audience remain with the orator who moves their laughter. If Lord Palmerston is ambitious of a second edition of similar applause, we advise him to treat the congregation of his parish church to-morrow to a comic song in the middle of the sermon. The model which the jaunty Viscount seems to have proposed to himself for imitation is the "smart "man" in whom the American public delight. To know and do "a trick or two" is, with him, the ne plus ultra of statesmanship. We don't contest his "smartness," but we think that he has mistaken his vocation, and that the proper arena for those who affect the arts of saltimbanques is not the arena for those who affect the arts of satumbanques is not the House of Commons when engaged in a debate on the reform of the English Constitution. We could laugh as heartly even as Sir J. Shelley at a distinguished British statesman who should come in, at an advanced period of the evening, in the garb of the "comic old gentleman" at the Cider Cellars, or the "judicious bottle-holder" with his tongue in his cheek the council chamber of Chief Baron Nicholson. that which we cannot admire, and at which we do not hesitate to express a disgust which we share with the great majority of the English people, is the species of hollow jesting which is used as the cloak of an insincere intrigue.

It is a fausse bonhommie of this description which is the favourite and facile cloak of men who are as incapable of patriotism as they are destitute of convictions. They hope by a hollow jocosity to evade that responsibility of opinion which the exigencies of the country require, and which the conditions of political honour demand. They imagine that by ambiguous words and mocking allusions they may manage to defeat their rivals without committing themselves. And they expect that a high-minded and honest people will recognise in their impertinent quirks a masterpiece of political wisdom. We believe that they are mistaken. We are confident that English public opinion is not yet so degraded. We are not yet a "smart people." We are told that the menaces levelled by Lord Palmerston at the prerogative of the Crown—that the threats of stopping the supplies—that the uncivil taunts addressed to the Ministry, were all in joke. It may be so. We hold the defence to be anything but an extenuation of the outrage. If it was a joke, we have nothing more to say than that it was the very worst joke which, on a solemn occasion, was ever played off in the interests of a political trickster at the expense of a whole people. There are few things from which the conscience of men revolts with a more instinctive abhorrence than the indecent ambiguous words and mocking allusions they may manage to volts with a more instinctive abhorrence than the indecent levity of age. Whatever else may be the result, we do not believe that it is to a septuagenarian joker that, in a great constitutional crisis, the sober and reflecting English nation will look for counsel and guidance.

We are disposed, however, very seriously to doubt whether, after all, the speech of Lord Palmasson was wholly ironical. We gravely suspect that it was intended to susceptible of either interpretation, according to of events. Indeed, we think it highly probable take him at his word. But he over-finessed him at his word. But he over-finessed him all misjudged the effects of his own calculated have the supposed of the page of Sir John Pakington encountered his

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with the manliness which might have been expected of an English gentleman. And he was able to launch at his quitzer a retort which will fall with crushing weight from the public assent by which it is enforced, that "the honour "of public men is not so high in this country as it used " to be."

As to the results of this dishonest scramble, as we have said, we shall attempt no predictions. In the midst of a cynical disregard of political principles and public virtue a cynical disregard of political principles and public virtue among party politicians which we believe to be quite unprecedented in the history of Parliament, we rest with a confident faith on the uncorrupted honesty and solid good sense of the public opinion of the country. We believe that that public opinion may yet be brought to bear in time to coerce the intriguers of faction into moderation and patriotism. It is to that public opinion that we appeal from the selfish wrangling of politicians to rescue the nation from the perils in which those who ought to have defended have involved her. For our part, in the difficulties which gather from every quarter of the horizon, we find a clear course for us furnished by a single principle, which directs us to a steadfast aim. Whatever comes of the crisis into which we have been so inconsiderately precipitated, we have a compass to steer by. Irrespective of all parties and of any indivi-dual, we shall pursue that course which, after the serious check with which it has been so unpatriotically encountered, may best tend to the immediate settlement of Reform.

AUSTRIA AND SARDINIA.

L ORD MALMESBURY may have been well advised in announcing last Monday that there was no visible danger of immediate war. It is always safe to hope, or to profess to hope, the best; and an ambiguous declaration may sometimes be converted into a pledge, when it is ostentatiously accepted in the most favourable sense. It is singular, however, that a new security for the preservation of peace should be found in Count CAVOUR'S fiery manifesto. The promise that Sardinia will not commence the attack if Austria abstains from aggressive proceedings, is limited and interpreted by the assertion that the Austrian armaments and positions are in themselves acts of aggression. The King of SARDINIA might declare war to-morrow in the strictest consistency with the formal undertakings of his Minister, and it is certain that, if the crisis passes over, a pacific solution will only be obtained by the disappointment of all the aspirations and efforts of Piedmont. Count BUOL had proved, with an irritating force of technical logic, that it was lawful to assist established Governments, while foreign sympathy with an oppressed and kindred nation was altogether novel and irregular. As to the Piedmontese Constitution, although the Italian character was not adapted to liberty, the Austrian Government recognised the right of its liberty, the Austrian Government recognised the right of its neighbours to mismanage their own affairs. It was only to be regretted that the license which must be tolerated at Turin should infect the entire Peninsula with a love of turbulence and revolution. Wantonly menaced, justly offended, but long-suffering and strictly punctilious, Austria, notwithstanding her feelings of regret and disapproval, nevertheless promised, in the absence of irresistible provocation, not to strike the first blow. Count Cavour in reply, while he adheres to the letter of his pacific undertaking, boldly takes up the challenge which he discovers in the guarded language of his adversary. "We acknowledge," he says, "that the "liberty of Piedmont is a danger and a menace to Austria," and in default of a declaration of war it would be difficult to and in default of a declaration of war it would be difficult to avow more plainly the necessity of bringing an irreconcilable difference to the test of arms. If Lord MALMESBURY is reassured by the despatch in any but a diplomatic sense, the strongest partisans of war can scarcely grudge him a satisfaction so cheap and easy.

It is not worth while to enter into the details of a contro-It is not worth while to enter into the details of a controversy which will be decided with little reference to the arguments of either party. Count Buol is perfectly aware that if Piedmont has hitherto kept the peace, the postponement of a rupture has not been attributable to the absence of great and wilful provocation. On the other hand, Count Cavour would scarcely deny that his present demonstrations of hostility have been suggested by opportunity rather than by any extraordinary cause of offence. As neither statesman finds it convenient to announce the simple truth, the pleadings on either side are for the most part irrelevant to the ings on either side are for the most part irrelevant to the sabstantial issue in the dispute. The fierce and threatening tone of the Sardinian despatch would indicate the certainty

of war if the termination of the present crisis depended on the Court of Turin; but it is still open to question whether

Count Cavous is certain of support, or only anxious to put an additional pressure on the policy of his indispensable ally. Both the rival critics insist on discussing the merits of the plot with a studious omission of the character of Hamlet. Austria, with a quarter of a million of men in Northern Italy, gravely apprehends a Piedmontese invasion; while Count CAVOUR, in his turn, as solemnly complains that the reinforcements moved from Germany a week before the delivery of the Royal Speech at Turin. The "abnormal state of Central "Italy" is a melancholy subject of contemplation but it has lasted forty years, and might apparently have lasted forty more but for the abnormal state of the mind which has made itself the centre of France. When all Europe knows that the disturbance of tranquillity originals in the control of the cont Turin and Vienna. The Austrian army would never have been equipped for war, nor would the grievances of Piedmont have suddenly become unbearable, if there had not been an immediate prospect of a French invasion of Italy. Both the ostensible principals in the dispute have much to say in their justification. No Power can be blamed for arming in self-defence; and if Sardinia watches for an opportunity of avenging wrongs which have long been inopportunity of avenging wrongs which have long been inflicted with impunity, the prudence of accepting suspicious aid is more questionable than the substantial justice of the quarrel. It is only the wanton disturber of the peace of the world who deserves unmitigated censure. If the Sardinian Parliament met on the 10th of January, after the march of the additional division across the Brenner, the New-Year's compliment to Baron Hüber was undoubtedly delivered on New-Year's day. Many months before, the preparations for war in France had created just alarm in Austria, and it is absurd to suppose that Count alarm in Austria, and it is absurd to suppose that Count CAYOUR was not in the secret of the policy which was shortly afterwards cemented by a family alliance. All the excuses and reasons which may be urged in favour of other possible belligerents are utterly inapplicable to the officious ambition of France. The Government which has for ten years shared in the convession of the Roman States has also repeatedly. in the oppression of the Roman States has also repeatedly condoned any supposed offence on the part of Austria by diplomatic and political co-operation, accompanied by all the ordinary forms of friendship. The situation of Italy has in no respect been changed since the mediation of Austria was eagerly invoked for the purpose of terminating the Russian war when it was exhausting the financial resources

All argument, however, on the merits of the war has long since been exhausted, and it only remains to speculate on the possibility of a change of policy. The Congress will be useful if it offers facilities for concessions on one side and for retractation on the other; but at present its composition seems uncertain, nor is it known whether any basis of nego-tiation is provided. While the admission of Piedmont is tiation is provided. While the admission of Piedmont is still doubtful, Lord Malmesbury anticipates that all the Italian States will obtain at least a hearing; yet Rome, and Tuscany, and Parma would appear as suitors, and not as judges, while the Italian population would not be represented at all. The Papal Nuncio would scarcely echo the familiar complaint of the "abnormal state of Central "Italy," nor would the Governments of the Duchies protest against the right of Austria to interfere for the purpose of defending them against the discontent of their subjects. In proposing the admission of minor Powers, it is probably the tiation is provided. proposing the admission of minor Powers, it is probably the object of England and Prussia, as well as of Austria, to create, as at the Congress of Vienna, an interior Committee or Cabinet composed exclusively of the plenipotentiaries of the Great Powers; but those who insist on the nominal admission of Sardinia will not be likely to acquiesce in a virtual evasion of the arrangement.

Accurate returns from the French War Office for the last three weeks would be far more instructive than any assurances which can be given by Ministers or diplomatists. If the recent preparations are still in progress, it may be assumed that the Government is not without a purpose when it increases its already enormous deficit. While Count BUOL and Count CAVOUR are vituperating one another, like two Homeric heroes on the verge of combat, the anxious spectator is chiefly concerned to inquire whether ACHILLES is arming in his tent. According to the accounts which seem most authentic, there is no diminution of activity in the French arsenals and barracks, but it must be remembered that official secreey sometimes extends to active deception,

and that an intermission of armaments might perhaps be studiously concealed on the eve of a Congress. Europe will have cause for felicitation if all the recent turmoil ends without any further sacrifice than a few months stagnation of industry and commerce, involving the loss by France alone of several millions sterling.

LORD MALMESBURY AND THE CONGRESS.

WE feel in the very highest degree the force of the remonstrance which Mr. DISRAELI addressed to Lord JOHN RUSSELL on Thursday night, against the policy of attacking a Minister charged with critical and embarrassing negotiations. We fully admit the cogency of the appeal, and the truth of the principles on which it is founded. So long as it is thought fit to maintain a Minister in the position of Lord Malmesbury, he ought to be supported, and not criticised. In this respect we completely acknowledge that the responsibility of a journalist is at least as imthat the responsibility of a journalist is at least as imperative as that of a politician. If we had any doubt whether at this moment it was desirable that Lord Malmesbury should remain at the head of the Foreign Office, we would do nothing to weaken his hands, whatever might be our opinion of his conduct or his qualifications. If we assume the heavy responsibility of censuring him, it is because we are convinced that it is essential to the public interests that he should be removed. We say this from no feeling of hostility to Lord Derby or his Administration. So far as Lord Derby is concerned, we believe that the interests. So far as Lord Derby is concerned, we believe that the interests, the honour, and the security of England are safe in his hands—far safer, indeed, than they were in the hands of his pre-decessor. If we could feel sure that the business of the Foreign Office was transacted personally by the PRIME MINISTER, we should be ready to give him a cordial and unhesitating support. But the announcement, which seems to be made on authority, that Lord MALMESBURY meditates conducting in person the pending negotiation at the Congress, no longer permits the alternative of silence to those who, like ourselves, are profoundly convinced of his incapacity. It is certainly not the part of patriotism to march with open eyes into such a catastrophe.

With a very happy stroke of humour, Punch has pointed out the essential identity of the apparently conflicting statements that England is not to be represented at the Congress, and that Lord MALMESBURY means to take upon himself the functions of Plenipotentiary. There is only one point of view in which this announcement can be regarded as otherwise than most alarming. The single comfort we possess is derived from indications which are not wanting, that the principals in the European quarrel have pretty well made up their minds that the Congress is to do nothing atall. In this point of view, we shall not be so unjust as to deny that Lord MALMESBURY is eminently qualified for the duties which he seeks to impose upon himself. Where there is nothing to be done, there is no man fitter than his lordship to do it. There is a candour and frankness about his own confessions of helplessness which go far to disarm criticism. The conversation which took place in the House of Lords on Monday night reveals Lord MALMESBURY's estimate of his own position in a light which, if the matter were not rather too serious for a joke, might be regarded as highly diverting. His relations to Lord Cowley are certainly of a character quite unknown to the traditions of English statesmanship. When the Minister for Foreign Affairs is called upon for an explanation of his religious and defence of his related his related. nation of his policy or a defence of his conduct, his answer, in a few words, comes just to this—"Pray don't be hard "upon me. Lord Cowley is a very clever man. I assure you, "gentlemen, I leave everything to him. It can't be my "fault, for I never meddle in the business." Now, this is a very embarrassing state of things. We don't wish to be guilty of cruelty to dumb creatures. But really the theory of constitutional government and representative institutions requires that we should have Ministers—and above all Secretical Charles of State for Foreign Affairs, who are prepared to secont taries of State for Foreign Affairs—who are prepared to accept their own responsibility, and not shelter themselves under the gaberdine of their subordinates. We have no doubt that the panegyrics upon Lord Cowley which may be said to constitute the whole policy of Lord MALMESBURY are very well deserved. But, after all, if they prove anything, they prove that Lord Cowley, and not Lord Malmesbury, ought to hold the seals of the Foreign Office. In the broad daylight which has been let in upon Downing-street by the Portuguese papers, and the glimpses which we are able to catch of the negotiations now in progress, it appears pretty plainly

that Lord MALMESBURY regards himself very much in the light of private Secretary to Lord Cowley. We are asked that Lord Malmesbury regards himself very much in the light of private Secretary to Lord Cowley. We are asked by Mr. Walfole, in the only portion of his speech from which we feel obliged broadly to dissent, to render our acknowledgments to his lordship for the sagacity with which he has settled the preliminaries of a pacific arrangement. But we really cannot consent to accept the assurance of Mr. Walfole against the positive testimony of Lord Malmesbury himself. Indeed, we rather feel disposed, with Mr. Gladstone, to attribute to the friendship of the member for the University of Cambridge a blindness which is anything rather than judicial and to exclaim anything rather than judicial, and to exclaim-

Tantum infelicem nimium dilexit amicum;

for indeed he might well have added-

Nihil iste nec ausit nec potuit.

Our confidence is challenged for Lord MALMESBURY as the Our confidence is challenged for Lord MALMEBURY as the author of the Congress. But is he the author of the Congress? We take leave to doubt it on the highest authority—viz, his own. We have all heard of the mission of Lord Cowley to Vienna. In our simplicity we confess that we supposed the English emissary had been charged with English instructions, to impress the views of the English Cabinet on the Court to which he was accredited. But this style of proceeding is, it appears, entirely antiquated and out of fashion. Lord Cowley, we learn from the English Secreof fashion. Lord Cowley, we learn from the English Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, "came to London, but he "did not receive any official instructions whatever." Of course not. Why should he? Have we not been told, in the elegant and idiomatic phraseology of which Lord Malmesbury is so accomplished a master, that official instructions are a "useless rigmarole." This sort of thing might be all very well in the days of Chatham, or Canning, or Castlereagh; but we have done with that pedantic style of doing business, and the rising generation of English statesmen is superior to what Lord Malmesbury would probably call the "old foreydom" of our necestors. Things are sattled in a the "old fogeydom" of our ancestors. Things are settled in a much more serene manner now-a-days. Things are settled in a much more serene manner now-a-days. Two, three, four, or five men of the world, as the case may be, dispose of the peace of Europe by "shrugging their shoulders in a saloon." So Lord Cowley had "no official instructions whatever." Indeed, to have given him such instructions would have been Indeed, to have given him such instructions would have been highly inconvenient, because, if "instructions" are given, it is necessary that something should be said—and in order that something should be said, it is almost inevitable that the writer should know what he wants to say—and before you know what you want to say, it is rather indispensable that you should know what it is that you are about to do. From you should know what it is that you are about to do. From these considerations it must appear very conclusively that, as a matter of course, it was out of the question that Lord Malmesbury should give "any instructions," as he says—or any "official instructions" as Lord Derby is good enough to say for him—to Lord Cowley. He had an interview, it is true, with his Envoy; and, without pretending to have listened at the door, we can pretty well divine, from our recent information as to the style of prodern statesmanship, what was the purport of the modern statesmanship, what was the purport of the "instructions" which were not "official." The Portuguese correspondence has given us an insight into the dressing-gown-and-slippers style of ninetcenth-century foreign policy. We have very little doubt that non-official instrucpolicy. We have very little doubt that non-omena metalicions, when boiled down to their essential elements, come pretty much to this:—"My dear fellow, what a horrid mess. "What ever shall we do? I have not an idea—have you?" "Well, never mind, just go to Vienna, and see about it."
So, off goes Lord Cowley express to Vienna, "without any
"official instructions whatever," and, as far as we can
learn, without even a change of "immortal truths" in his portmanteau to refresh him in moments of embarrassment and despondency. But though Lord Cowley had "no "official instructions whatever" from his own Ministers as to the views of his own Government-though he had no authority to communicate anything, or to recommend anything, on the part of England—it is not to be supposed that he was without instructions altogether. On the contrary, it seems that he had "official instructions," and very explicit instructions too—but they were derived from the Emperor of the French. "Before he left Paris he obtained Emperor of the FRENCH. "Before he left Paris he obtained "the entire assent and approbation of the French Government to his mission, and he left Paris perfectly intimate "with all the ideas and views of the French Government with respect to what is called the Italian question."

We ask our readers to reflect on the probable consequences of such a method of conducting critical

negotiations. We can understand an English Minister taking the pains to ascertain the views of the French Government, and then forming a definite opinion as to their reasonableness and propriety—and, having formed such an opinion, communicating in a friendly spirit to the Austrian Minister the decision of the Queen's Government on the disputed question. But what we cannot understand, and what we will venture to say is an entire innovation on the principles and practice of diplomacy, is the despatching of a Minister in Lord Cowley's position as the gobetween of a foreign Government, and not as the accredited organ of the English Cabinet. We have already seen, in the Portuguese business, the mischievous consequence this vague and unbusiness-like method of transacting great public affairs. The result of these loose pourparlers was that Count WALEWSKI was enabled to outwit and jockey the English Government by committing a fraud upon Mr. Howard at Lisbon, who, like Lord Cowley, found himself at the critical moment "without any official instructions "whatever." Lord Cowley, as in the present instance, was Lord Cowley, as in the present instance, was " intimately acquainted with the views of the French Go-"vernment;" only the awkward part of it was, that Count WALEWSKI thought proper, in the moment of action, to substitute something wholly different from the terms which he had verbally agreed to. It is impossible to depart from the principles and practice which a long-continued experience has established without the risk of great and immediate mischiefs. In the case of the present negotiations those mischiefs have already developed themselves. While Lord Cowley and Lord Malmesbury seem to have onjoyed the pleasing belief that they were about to settle the affairs of Europe at Vienna, the French Government was in reality all the time arranging the matter with Russia behind their backs. To say that Lord Malmesbury was the author of the Congress is absurd. Indeed, he tells us himself, that "on the return of Lord Cowley to "Paris on the 16th, he found that during his absence the " French and Russian Governments had entered into communi-"cation with each other, and that, with the consent and appro-bation of France, Russia intended to recommend to the five " great Powersof Europe a Congress, to consider and settle these " matters." We regard this statement as one of the utmost importance with respect to the spirit in which France has acted in the transaction, and the views which she entertains as to the action of the Congress. This private This private arrangement between France and Russia was, in fact, a practical supersedeas of the mission of Lord Cowley and the arbitration of England. It was the natural and inevitable consequence of the neglect to reduce to exact terms the mission with which Lord Cowley was charged, in a form by which the Emperor of the French would have been bound to abide. What are the conditions of the negotiation thus carried on in the dark between France and Russia, no one but the principal parties is ever likely to learn. As it is, it is quite clear, from his own statement, that on the 18th Lord MALMESBURY learnt for the first time that France and Russia had settled behind his back the terms of an arrangement which he imagined himself to be conducting through Lord Cowley at Vienna. It may be said that Lord Clarendon seems, in his speech on Monday last, to have given his exequatur to such a method of proceeding. If it has a we require no other such a method of proceeding. If it be so, we require no other justification for the common condemnation in which we have felt it necessary to include both the late and the present Foreign Secretaries, in respect of their manner of conducting the relations of this country with France. It was for acting in this very same manner that Lord Clarendon and his chief fell before the censure of Parliament. And we have no reason to believe that the country is prepared to reverse, in favour of Lord Malmesbury, the judgment it has passed on far abler men.

on far abler men.

Of the present prospects of European peace or war it is difficult to speak with any confidence. The auspices under which the Congress has been ushered in do not appear to inspire any faith in its bona fides. The impression seems to be daily growing stronger that it is little more than a pretext to give time for preparations which are in no degree relaxed. The armaments of France continue with unabated activity, and Germany seems to find no reason in the promised negotiations for slackening in her military defences. The ill-timed visit of Count Cavour to Paris, and the apparent determination of the French Emperor to encourage to the utmost the aggressive party, have inspired a universal uneasiness and distrust. No one

seems to know, or even to believe, that any solid agreement has been arrived at as to the general objects and scope of the Congress. All that can be said is that the negotiations have progressed no further than the agreement to a most precarious armistice. We cannot pretend to hope for a more satisfactory settlement of affairs as long as the representatives of England are "without any official instructions "whatever," and as long as the country which ought to be, and which might be, the arbiter of peace to Europe, is in the hands of a Minister without clearness of ideas or firmness of will.

MR. GLADSTONE'S SPEECH.

F Mr. GLADSTONE'S speech was imperfect as a work of art, I the fault perhaps lay rather in the subject than in the orator. The Solicitor-General, the Colonial Secretary, Mr. SIDNEY HERBERT, and Sir JAMES GRAHAM had exhausted the main topic of the defects of the Bill, and had dwelt at length on the necessity of securing, at the earliest period, the smallest possible amount of Reform. The won-derful unanimity which ostensibly underlies the superficial differences of contending parties might perhaps be found, on a closer inspection, to conceal below it rents and fissures of opinion which will hereafter expand into more formidable dimensions; but the long debate has resulted in the dis-covery that the House of Commons is generally agreed for the moment on the merits or demerits of leading men, and on the practicability of certain measures. There is no doubt that the Government has committed a mistake which would be inexcusable, only that it is the interest of the country to excuse it; and it is equally certain that Lord John Russell has taken advantage of the error for the purpose of carrying out the uniform object of his life by returning to the head of affairs. An element of ambiguity and complication has been introduced into the discussion by Lord Palmerston's apparent disinclination to co-operate with the ancient colleague and rival whom he affects on the present occasion to support; yet the question, whether the blundering Ministerial proposal should be defeated by fair means or by foul, has terial proposal should be defeated by fair means or by foul, has been the only substantial issue since the middle of the lingering debate. Non olet, said Mr. Sidney Herbert and the other supporters of the Resolution—let us take up the first weapon that offers, and remember that any stone is good enough to fling at a dog.

The measure, replied the defenders of the Government, is certainly not to be altogether approved but the Opposition which sacks to use the correction. proved, but the Opposition which seeks to use the occasion to effect a change of Ministry, ought at least to show that its members have agreed on the principle of an alternative project. The dispute necessarily resolved itself into a party struggle, in which the secret wishes of the advanced Liberals to a great extent coincided with the professed objects of the Government minority. It was a task not unworthy of Mr. GLADSTONE's ingenuity to make a speech on the sixth day of the debate which should be novel, temperate, practical, and yet should be exclusively confined to the evanescent topic of the moribund Bill and the untoward Resolution. No other leading politician would have succeeded as well, but there are some feats of skill which the ablest Parliamentary acrobat can accomplish only in an approximate degree. Mr. Gladstone intended, as he announced at the commencement, to leave altogether out of consideration the bearing of the question on party interests, or, in other words, the practical consequences of the vote which it was the exclusive object of the orator to influence; but, by a happy inconsistency, the speech was made so relevant to the real subject of discussion, that the elaborate defence of small boroughs was felt to be an awkward episode in a just and forcible exposition of the state and prospects of parties.

In spite of propriety and of decorous professions, it seemed to Mr. Gladstone, as well as to every responsible politician, far more material to ascertain the true state of the relations between the Liberal leaders than to dilate on the acknowledged impossibility of transferring freehold votes to the boroughs. If a thing can be done, it may be interesting to determine the how, and the where, and the when, after a preliminary inquiry whether it is right to do it; but as the project was impossible, Mr. Gladstone could not reasonably be expected to say more on the main proposition of the Resolution than that he concurred with nine-tenths of the previous speakers on both sides of the House. The form of the Resolution, as he acutely pointed out, necessarily reduced to a minimum the number of votes in favour of the principle which it affirmed, for every member who thought the mode

of proceeding irregular or inexpedient would be compelled to words in apparent opposition to the avowed doctrines of the mover. It was not necessary to the argument to observe that the object of the movement was not to out-manœuvre the enemy, but to force him to fight. A large majority in Committee, recruited from all parties, would not necessarily have been regarded as a victory over the Government. Instead of pointing out a reason for the Resolu-tion, which indeed hardly needed to be explained, Mr. GLADSTONE at this part of his speech digressed into a formal censure on Sir Hugh Cairns for his imputations on Lord John Russell and his motives. Having thus proved that no similar suspicion could find place in his own mind, the speaker was led, by some curious association of ideas, to the remark that Lord Palmerston appeared unwilling to take a part in the arrangement which Lord John Russell had of course never contemplated. Wholly indifferent to the triumph of individuals and of parties, and exclusively absorbed in the contemplation of abstract reform, Mr. GLADSTONE nevertheless could not help thinking that a combination to overthrow a Ministry, or a motion which might accidentally lead to the same result, ought to imply a disposition to unite in forming a future Government. As to the Resolution, the truisms which it contained might wait for a more appropriate occasion. The Ministers had pledged themselves, not against paying their debts by abandoning all the principles of their Bill, but only against paying under compulsion. The speech would have been more harmonious, and probably more effective, if it had ended when it arrived at a practical and judicious conclusion; but Mr. GLADSTONE's susceptible conscience unluckily reminded him that, in discussing the real subject of the debate, he had failed to point out any merit in the Bill, and had scarcely touched on the question of Reform. It is possible that the strong point of the measure may, as he suggests, consist in the absence of Schedule A., and in the reassuring brevity of Schedule B.; but anomalies are seldom the better for formal apologies, and it might have been more prudent to conciliate the advanced Liberals by not challenging their attention to the maintenance of small boroughs. With Mr. Gladstone pledged to Arundel and Thetford, with Mr. Sidney Herbert protesting against an advance on Mr. Walfole's project, and with Lord Palmerston at liberty to support any measure, however moderate, except that before the House, Lord John RUSSELL'S prospect of carrying a Bill now that he is old, for the purpose of reviving the r forming associations of his youth, seems scarcely sufficiently clear to justify a political

Mr. GLADSTONE is at least in the right when he recommends that Parliament should take the opportunity of legislating while all parties are professedly in the same mind. There was obvious prudence in Mr. BRIGHT'S laboured moderation, but his caution would be found to have overreached itself if it facilitated the passage of a Bill. While the leaders of parties, scarcely divided among themselves except by shades of opinion, are wrangling over the mode of censuring or abandoning a project which all admit to be untenable, the advocates of more dangerous changes sit by in silence, waiting to take advantage of selfish or obstinate blindness. Two hundred members of the House of Commons are pledged to the Ballot, and half that number would perhaps be prepared to follow Mr. BRIGHT if he limited his immediate object to an instalment of his ultimate demands. It is by no means certain that the ultra-Liberal section would remain powerless after two or three abortive Ministries had been successively affecting to bid for its support, nor can the most experienced observer anticipate the result of a general election in the state of mind which constituencies now suppose themselves to be cultivating. If all parties could agree, it would be almost worth while to buy off Lord John Russell by allowing him to enjoy the official parentage of some com-paratively unobjectionable Bill. As the inevitable leader of a conscientious opposition to any Government but his own, the David of Reform will, in all future discussions, act under the influence of the motives which the Solicitor-General unjustifiably stigmatized as factious. Mr. GLADSTONE, consciously superior to all similar unfairness, was at liberty to point out in fuller detail the irregularity and novelty of a course of proceeding which, in other cases, might be thought party purposes, as it is obviously and exclusively to indicate calculated to promote them.

For the present, Lord JOHN RUSSELL'S tactics have so far prospered as to secure him, if the proverb is true, from imputations of treason or of faction; but as it is barely possible that the Ministerial cup may still fall before it reaches the eager lip, rival statesmen may not unprofitably consider whether they also have discharged, in the form of ingenious speeches, all the debt which they owe to their country. Mr. GLADSTONE has contented himself with protecting and patronizing the Ministry, and even holding a commission under it, when he might have given it strength, and perhaps permanence, by casting in his fortunes with the party which he visibly favours. Bitterly hostile to Lord Palmerston's Ministry, and naturally distrustful of Lord John Russell, the first orator in the House has practically declared that a Cabinet good enough for the country is not good enough for himself. It is still open to Mr. Gladstone to join a Liberal combination without loss of consistency or of honour; but if the pestilent vanity of one intriguing politician renders the formation of a strong Government impossible, it is better that Lord Derby should retain office with additional support, than that there should be a long Ministerial interregnum. On the assumption that one side can still be distinguished from another, it may be a shame to be on any side but one; yet it is worse shame to stand neutral than to be on the worse side. Mr. Gladstone has hampered his friends too long by his apparent leaning to their enemies. He may hold a high position on either side, and it is time that he should at last declare his choice.

LORD STANLEY'S FINANCIAL POLICY.

THE Indian difficulty grows at a fearful pace. A few weeks only have passed since Lord STANLEY announced the necessity of raising 7,000,000l. in the London market, and stated his belief that that sum would be sufficient to provide for the principal demands of the coming year. Before the Bill has had time to go through the Parliamentary forms, we are told on the highest authority that the projected loan must be raised to 12,000,000l., and that even then the claims for compensation will remain to be met from some resources which are not yet apparent. Lord STANLEY has promised to make an amended financial statement on the earliest opportunity, and he will then have an opportunity of explaining how it has happened that he was in error to so large an amount as 5,000,000l. in his original calculations.

The despatches recently received from India contain no information which might not have been expected at the time when Lord STANLEY determined to limit his demands to 7,000,000l. That estimate was, in fact, made to provide for the wants of the Home Treasury alone, and it was assumed that the Government in India would be able to cover its own disbursements by resources to be obtained at Calcutta. Anything more groundless than such an expectation can scarcely Lord CANNING calculates on an increase in the ordinary revenue of 800,000l, and a decrease in military charges of 2,000,000l; but even after allowing for this amount of improvement, he finds that, in order to keep up what has been considered a proper cash balance, it will be necessary to raise, for the expenses of India alone, no less than II,400,000l., before the 30th of April, 1860. It is possible that the government may be carried on with a smaller cash balance than Lord Canning has assumed to be requisite; and if Lord Ellenborough's calculation may be relied on, the wants of the Indian Treasury may be reduced in this way by at least 1,000,000l. Still there will remain a void of more than 10,000,000l., in addition to the home

deficiency for which the 7,000,000. loan has been proposed.

These particulars, it is true, are contained in despatches which have only just arrived, but Lord Stanley must have known, or ought to have known, when he made his financial statement, that the deficit would not fall much short of the amount at which it is now estimated. He could scarcely have expected a larger improvement in the inelastic revenues of India, or a greater reduction in the military expenditure than the 2,800,000., on which Lord Canning calculates. But with the certainty of this vast deficiency staring him in the face, he contented himself with writing a financial despatch in which the Governor-General was enjoined to provide for his own necessities, and allowed the House of Commons to believe that new taxes and Indian loans would suffice to furnish the whole 10,000,000. for which he had made no provision at all. And yet it must have been quite apparent that there was no prospect of such a result. Previous despatches had conveyed the information that the subscriptions to the open loan could not be relied on to produce more than 300,000. a month, and as long since as the 8th of September last, the Indian Minister had

sent out instructions for the Treasury-Bill experiment which collapsed as soon as it was tried. He had himself admitted to the House of Commons that the produce of new taxes could not be on a scale at all approaching the sums necessary to equalize the revenue and expenditure of India. Whence, then, was the IO,000,000 to come from? To us it seems perfectly clear that Lord Stanley deliberately shut his eyes to the impending difficulties of the year about to commence, and proposed to Parliament a measure which, with a moment's consideration, he must have seen to be utterly inadequate. In a few days we may look for an amendment which shall substitute 12,000,000. for the amount which was represented as sufficient in the early part of the session; but after such a specimen of foresight as has already been exhibited, who will place any confidence in the assurance that the increased loan will be the last to be called for within the year?

Lord Canning's latest despatch supplies in some measure the means of forming an opinion on the point independently of such reliance as may be placed on Lord Stanley's estimates. We have at last something definite as to the prospects of new taxation. It is intended to raise the tariff and to levy stamp-duties in the Presidency towns. From these sources it is hoped that 1,000,000l. may be obtained during the year. A succession-tax, and an excise on tobacco, are also mentioned as possible resources at a future time; but it is not thought safe to try the former experiment until the matter has been more fully considered. There will thus remain 9,000,000l. at least to be raised by loans in India, or provided for by remittances from home. Of this sum one million has already been shipped, and three millions more are promised if absolutely indispensable. To enable the Council to meet these demands, 4,000,000l. will have to be added to the loan; but whether that will suffice or not will depend entirely on the success which may attend Lord Canning's efforts to raise the remaining 5,000,000l. by a loan in India. This is the utmost which the Governor-General thinks it possible to obtain, even at aix per cent.; and from the latest news it seems very doubtful whether this limited operation will not prove a failure. All that can be safely said at present is, that additional loans to the extent of 9,000,000l. must be raised either here or in India, and that our share of the burden will certainly not be less than 4,000,000l, beyond the sum proposed by the Bill now before the House.

The prospect disclosed by the figures we have quoted is gloomy enough, but there is an incidental remark in Lord CANNING's last despatch which is more alarming than almost any amount of immediate difficulty. "The Public Works expenditure," it appears, "is now chiefly confined to mili"tary buildings." In other words, the mainstay of Indian finance is given up, and the vast sums which are so urgently demanded will be exhausted without providing for any material addition to the reproductive works by which alone the ultimate solvency of the Government can be assured. However great may be the necessities of the moment, we are satisfied that the only course by which our empire in the East can be permanently maintained is by the vigorous prosecution of material improvements, by which the revenues of the Government may be increased. The efforts of guaranteed companies may be of abundant service to the inhabitants of India, but their projects will bring in no returns to the public treasury. Profitable investments made by the Government on its own account furnish the only sure hope for India, and these, it seems, are now to be discontinued until the arrival of the better days which there is no substantial reason to expect. The prudence of laying out money on works which promise an almost fabulous profit is not diminished by the fact that large loans are wanted to pay the current expenses of the Government. A Minister who had the courage and the ability to face the real difficulties of the case would insist on raising sufficient funds, not merely to stave off immediate bankruptcy, but to provide trustworthy resources for a more distant future. While we continue, as Lord ELLENBOROUGH observed, to While we continue, as Lord ELLENBOROUGH observed, to borrow in the dearest market, there is little probability that a policy so bold, and at the same time so necessary, will ever be pursued. Certainly Lord Stanley has given no indication that he appreciates this essential condition of Indian finance. There is the tone of the man in difficulties about every despatch. The temper which precedes inevitable bankruptcy is well known to all who read the curious revelations of Basinghall-street. After the last stage in the descent to ruin has commenced, the insolvent trader invariably shuts his eyes to all but the immediate future. Like Lord Stanley. his eyes to all but the immediate future. Like Lord STANLEY,

he dares not look forward more than a few weeks, and instead of attempting to provide for inevitable though remote liabilities, his energies are devoted to scolding his subordinates for every fresh demand which they bring before him. If repeated homilies on "the absolute necessity
" of providing in India for all the disbursements of the " Indian Government, and so regulating financial operations "that no further demand shall be made on the Home Trea-" sury," would make a revenue of 30,000,000*l*. sufficient to cover an expenditure of 40,000,000*l*., India would already be in a fair way towards recovery. But an Indian Minister in these days has something more to do than to impress upon the local Government the absolute necessity of performing We have the fullest confidence that, under wise administration, the Indian revenues may ultimately be made to balance the expenditure, but it is palpably impossible to achieve this end within the limit of one, or even of two or three years. Petulant complaints to the local authorities will not change a deficit into a surplus. A large and clear view of the future, no less than of the present, and a more than ordinary share of financial acuteness and courage, are wanted in the man who is to restore prosperity to the QUEEN'S Eastern Empire. As yet we regret to say that these qualities have not been conspicuously displayed in the despatches of the rising statesman to whom the destinies of India have been committed.

THE NAVY AND THE MERCHANT SERVICE.

If it were possible to ascertain exactly the feelings with which the naval service is regarded by seamen, it would be comparatively easy to pronounce upon the merits of the schemes which have been suggested for manning the Queen's ships in time of need. But it is just this essential matter of fact on which it is most difficult to obtain any trustworthy information. The Commissioners, in their recent Report, speak lightly of the alleged reluctance of sailors to enter the navy, and ascribe it entirely to prejudices which a little acquaintance with the enjoyments of strict discipline, gunnery practice, and a life of which a considerable portion is spent aloft, is almost certain to dispel. There are, on the other hand, some awkward facts which suggest a less favourable view of the subject. At the close of the Russian war a very large number of continuous service men gladly accepted the offer of a discharge, after all the experience they had had of the advantages of the Queen's service. A still more remarkable proof of the existence of some dislike to the navy—based on stronger grounds than mere ignorance—is afforded by a return lately made on a motion of Sir Charles Napier's. From this document it appears that in the four years ending with 1857, upwards of 13,000 men and boys deserted from the Royal Navy. The net amount of wages which they forfeited was nearly 26,000l. In other words, about one-tenth of the whole force of seamen desert annually, notwithstanding that they lose on an average 2l, a head by this irregular mode of getting their discharge. We believe that this proportion is almost, if not quite, as high as that which prevailed during the war with France, when our ships were, for the most part, manned by the aid of the press-

In the face of these facts it is difficult to believe that the ervice is as popular as the Commissioners would have us believe; and though the evidence of many of the witnesses whom they examined bears out the statements of the Report, there is abundant testimony also in favour of the opposite The contradictions indeed are such as to suggest considerable doubts whether any one is competent to spe with confidence as to what Jack's views on the matter really are. Possibly there may be great differences between different ports, but discrepancies are not wanting between witnesses whose experience is derived from the very same localities. Captain HEARD, for instance, is in command of a Coast-guard division extending from Blyth to the Tees, near Hartlepool. Having been on that station for more than five years, he very reasonably considers himself to be intimately acquainted with the habits and characters of these amen of those parts; and he reports that "there is such a thorough dislike as amounts to a detestation of the navy." He saw a great deal when the Coast Volunteers were being raised, and states that the idea of recruiting from the coasting sailors was found impracticable from the strong disposition of the men to have nothing to do with a man-of-war. Mr. Lambton, the shipping-master of Sunderland, ought to be an equally good authority, and he confirms the statement that the men, when solicited to join the navy, showed their animosity towards the service as soon as it was named. But there is another witness, Mr. Greenhow, the shipping-master of North Shields, and he asserts quite positively that the prejudice spoken of by Captain Heard does not exist, and that the only feeling to be combated is a certain fanciful dislike to

navy officers.

When men who have enjoyed equal opportunities arrive at such opposite conclusions, it is difficult to place much re-liance on the opinions of any of them. The causes of the real or supposed dislike to the navy are involved in even greater obscurity than the fact itself. Many of those who have made a shot at an explanation, being unable to find have made a shot at an explanation, being unable to find a more satisfactory reason, jump to the conclusion that ignorance alone can account for so irrational a prejudice. But it is just possible that the difficulty of fathoming Jack's sentiments may arise from the ignorance which, in a country like England, always prevails in the upper classes as to the real wants and desires of their inferiors. classes as to the real wants and desires of their inferiors. Sailors may have many grievances which they do not choose to discuss with captains in the navy, and it by no means follows that because their preference for the merchant service is unexplained, it must therefore arise from ignorant prejudice. But some more definite theories have been started on the subject. Captain Charlewood, who commands the Coast-guard ship at Harwich, thinks that a remnent of engint regulation and a digilile to the restrict. remnant of ancient prejudice, and a dislike to the restraint of a man-of-war, are at the root of the difficulty. Captain Heard attributes the feeling to traditions handed down from fathers and grandfathers, that a man-of-war is a prison. Other witnesses dwell on the insufficiency of a pound of meat a day; while a few, among whom Sir Charles Napler is included think that or increase of the present of the pres included, think that an increase of the pay of petty officers is the main thing wanted to render the service attractive. All this is very puzzling; and the official view of the matter throws little additional light upon it. Admiral MILNE gives us the reassuring information that men are always to be had in abundance for the purpose of filling up the vacancies in the peace establishment, and concludes that the scale of pay, and other attractions of the navy, are quite as high as they need be. At the same time he admits that the pay of able seamen is about 8*l*. a year below that given in the great mail steamers, except in the case of continuous contractions and the seamer than the case of continuous contractions. ous service-men, who receive, in return for their undertaking to serve ten years, between 3*l*. and 4*l*. less than they would do if they shipped for a short cruise in the Peninsular and Oriental line. It is possible that the incidental advantages of the navy may, with a certain class of sailors, outweigh the attraction of extra pay; but it can scarcely be doubted that the terms actually offered are such as to give the merchant service the pick of the market. That this is the real position of affairs is not only admitted by those who take the most sanguine view, but it is said to be an inevitable inconvenience. Admiral Milne puts the difficulty very clearly—"If the navy raise their wages, the shipowner would also raise his wages, and there would be a compe-"tition. The shipowner must have men at any price, and "the extra expense would fall on the freight of the goods, " tition. " and not on the owner."

This reasoning prevailed with the Commission, but it does not seem to be observed that it applies just as much to every other mode of attracting men into the QUEER's service as to the special inducement of additional pay. If the navy suddenly requires an accession, say of 20,000 men, at a time when sailors are fully employed, there must ensue a competition between the Admiralty and the shipowners. Each side will offer certain inducements, and the highest bidder will gain the day. Either the vessels of the navy or of the merchant service must be undermanned, or manned with an undue proportion of landsmen. The shipowners will raise their wages to keep the 20,000 sailors whom the naval authorities are anxious to seduce, and they will do so equally, whether the temptation offered by the country be in the shape of higher pay, contingent pensions, or additional beef. But which party will gain the day? Admiral Milne says the shipowner must have his men at any price, and infers that the navy must give way and go without the reinforcement which it requires. We should rather be inclined to say that the navy must have the men at any price when the national safety requires it, and that the shipowner will be compelled either to content himself with smaller crews or else to make up his numbers with foreigners and landsmen. The difficulty of making a sudden transfer of a large proportion of the seafaring population is no doubt sufficiently serious, but it is no greater when

the Government bid is in the shape of increased wages than it would be if any other temptation were offered. The question therefore seems to be whether it is cheaper to attract men by the offer of better pay, or by other advantages of a remote or incidental kind; and bearing in mind the proverbial temper of sailors, there can be little doubt that a pound will go further when offered in its metallic shape than if it were transformed into an equivalent chance of prospective comforts.

In substance, however, the opinion of the Commission comes to this—that we cannot by any practicable means effect a very rapid increase in the muster-roll of the navy. The only alternative on this hypothesis is to maintain large contingent reserves. The Naval Coast Volunteers are a specimen of what may be done in this way. It is certain that men may be got to accept payment of a moderate retaining-fee; but until the day of trial comes, it is impossible to say what proportion of the reserve could be collected at the rendezvous. The evidence of Captain Carnegle, who has had the largest number of the Volunteers under his command, does not encourage much reliance on the efficiency of this reserve; but it is possible that the scheme of the Commission, which is an application of the same principle on a much broader basis, might be more successful. It is satisfactory to find that Captain Brown, the Registrar-General of Seamen, and almost all the local shipping-masters, speak confidently as to the fidelity with which the reserve-men would adhere to their engagements when put to the test. The project must be experimental, but the testimony in its favour is so decided as to entitle it to a fair trial, notwithstanding any doubts that may be felt as to its ultimate success.

NAPOLEONIAN FINANCE.

A PART from the interest which is naturally felt in the prosperity of so near a neighbour and so intimate an ally, there is a special attraction about every financial statement which emanates from the Government of the Emperor Napoleon. There ought to be something to be learned by studying the principles of an administration which is conducted without regard to expense, and yet always produces accounts which show a satisfactory balance. The definitive settlement of the Budget of 1857 has just appeared, and notwithstanding the paternal exertions of the Government in repairing the losses caused by the inundations of that year, in supplying employment during times of scarcity, in carrying on the great work of the reconstruction of Paris, and in maintaining the army and navy on a war footing, the upshot of the whole is stated to be a surplus of 1,600,000L

Frenchmen are always good at figures, and the Budget of 1857 is an excellent specimen of the accountant's art. It would be almost a pity to pick to pieces figures so ingeniously put together, were it not absolutely necessary to do so in order to get at the useful and interesting information how it is that the French EMPEROR manages to spend without stint, and yet never to exceed his revenue. The official balance-sheet explains the whole mystery. There is one item of moderate amount—about 2,000,000.—which has rather a puzzling appearance, inasmuch as it is entered on both sides of the account. The explanation of this phenomenon seems to be that there are certain resources, of variable amount, appropriated to particular departmental and special services. The balances of this separate fund are carried over from year to year, and are not applicable to the general purposes of the State. Thus the ubiquitous 2,000,000. represents on the one side sums received on this special account, and on the other the expenditure out of the same fund, together with the balance carried over to future years. In order, therefore, to get at the real position of the French finances for the year 1857, we may put this particular item out of consideration.

The estimates with which the year commenced amounted altogether to an expenditure, in round numbers, of 68,000,000. The ways and means were calculated to produce about 400,000. more, and the final audit now shows, in place of this modest surplus, a substantial balance of 1,600,000. This desirable result has not been attained by any close-fisted economy. It is true that 800,000. has been saved by suppressing or reducing the expenditure under a number of heads which are not specified, and a further sum of 300,000. has been economized on paper by the simple process of allowing payments to this extent to stand over till the following year. But against these favourable items there is an increase in the Finance department of 900,000., a great part

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of which was absorbed by military pensions and in the manipulation of the floating debt. Other miscellaneous items are stated to have exceeded the estimates by 750,000l; but the great increase in expenditure was, as might have been anticipated, in the naval and military services. The amount of this excess reached the formidable sum of 4,000,000l, besides a further item for extraordinary services of 950,000l, or thereabouts. The whole increase of expenditure beyond the original estimate, after deducting the savings before mentioned, was no less than 5,800,000l, of which 5,500,000l was actually paid away. This brings the total expenditure of the year (without including the special services for which 2,000,000l was derived from the resources appropriated to them) up to 73,800,000l. While the expenses of the State were thus growing, the increase of the revenue helped to reduce the adverse balance. The taxes which were estimated at 68,400,000l actually realized 70,600,000l, so that the real deficit was reduced to 3,200,000l. The process by which this deficit has been converted into a large surplus is extremely simple. The year 1857 was the first year of peace, and the enormous loans which had been raised for the prosecution of the war were not only sufficient for that purpose, but left a clear balance of 4,500,000l in the Emperon's hands. The whole of this sum is added to the receipts of the year, leaving an available balance of 1,300,000l, which, with the 300,000l of debts left unpaid, produces the apparent surplus of 1,600,000l. The simple fact, therefore, is that the Emperon outran his income by more than 3,000,000l, and filled up the void with the remains of a loan contracted

For a very different purpose.

We presume that this financial device belongs to the order of Napoleonian ideas; but, excellent as the plan is, it does not admit of indefinite repetition. The resources derived from the old loan must have been long since exhausted. Only 1,300,000l. remained to eke out the expenditure of 1858, and although this was reinforced by a transaction with the Bank of France which was really another loan in disguise, there can be little doubt that, when the results of the past year are submitted to examination, it will be found that the expenditure incurred upon warlike preparations has more than exhausted the resources applicable to the service of the year. If this should prove to be the case, there may be some probability in the rumour that France is about to become a candidate for fresh advances. The change which has recently come over the EMPEROR'S policy becomes very intelligible on the hypothesis of an empty exchequer. He could scarcely have looked with much confidence to England to supply him with the means of commencing an aggressive war; and the undisguised reluctance of his own subjects to embark in hostilities would have made a repetition of the financial measures of 1855 and 1856 extremely hazardous. There was, in the beginning at least of the Russian war, a certain amount of enthusiasm among the French peasantry; and this, combined with the speculative spirit which has been so carefully fostered under the Imperial rule, sufficed to bring in ample subscriptions to the open loans. But in the present state of feeling, it is very probable that a similar invitation would meet with a much colder response; and the difficulty of raising, on moderate terms, funds for an Italian campaign might have proved as great within the limits of France itself as it undoubtedly would have been in the London market. In such a position, there was scarcely any choice left but to withdraw from the contest which had been so rashly provoked; and the true meaning of the assent to a European Congress may be, that his Imperial MAJESTY had

forgotten to count the cost before indulging in dreams of aggression on behalf of the Nationalities.

It will be very satisfactory if this should prove to be the true explanation of the EMPEROR's prudent retreat; for if money was wanting to prosecute a war, it will scarcely be forthcoming to keep the military forces of the Empire on their present footing. Without an extensive disarmament on the part of France, the uneasiness which has pervaded the whole of Europe will not soon be appeased. An attitude of armed watchfulness on the part of first-rate Powers is certain to end, sooner or later, in hostilities; for the burden of excessive armaments and the suspense of such a state of peace as that of the last three months are so intolerable that open hostilities would almost be felt as a relief. No good fruit can come of Congresses or diplomacy in any shape while Europe is bristling with bayonets, and our confidence in the restoration of tranquillity derives much strength from the belief that the Emperor Napoleon has not the means to support, for any lengthened period, the forces which he has collected as a

menace to Europe. A recent announcement from Paris that the hundred regiments of the line are each to receive an additional battalion does not look much like a reduction in the strength of the army; but the contemplated change appears to be confined to a new sub-division of unwieldy regiments, and not to involve any addition to the number of men under arms. As yet no hint has been given that the meeting of the Congress is to be the signal of a general disarmament. But the known financial difficulties of Austria and Sardinia, and the still greater embarrassment which the continuance of a war policy threatens to bring upon France, afford better grounds for hope than any assurances which could be given in the veracious columns of the Moniteur. The policy which the Emperor has thought fit to pursue on the Italian question has already gone far to destroy the prestige of his Government. If it should end in an exposure of his financial weakness, Europe will have no reason to regret the escapade of the first of January.

UNANIMITY OF JURIES.

THE House of Lords has seldom shown a sounder discretion than that which it exercised in throwing out Lord Campbell's Bill for taking away the necessity for a unanimous verdict from juries in civil cases. It is remarkable that all the speakers who had had much experience of juries—with the single exception of Lord Campbell—were of one way of thinking. Lord Kingsdown's name is a very great one, but his experience is confined almost exclusively to Courts of Equity and to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council. Lord Granville is a layman. Lord Cranworth, though formerly an eminent Common-law judge, practised as a barrister in the Court of Chancery, and Lord Campbell admitted that the judges were opposed to him—Mr. Justice Erle, who was the only exception (a most important one no doubt), having been a very recent convert, and having, according to Lord Campbell's statement, been converted by the experience of no more than two cases. It is important to notice, in reference to the question of authority, that no body of men have done so much towards reforming their own profession for many years past as lawyers. The Tory school of Lord Ellenborough has died out and left no successors, and even if it were otherwise we do not know that the profession can have any indirect motives whatever in reference to such a question as this. If the promotion of litigation were the sole object of lawyers, the maintenance or abolition of the existing rule would be matter of complete indifference to them.

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It is singular that, notwithstanding the importance which was (very justly) attached throughout the debate to the antiquity of the existing arrangement, no one should have entered upon the question of its origin. All that was said on this subject was, that the rule was about 500 years old, and had once been doubted. It is not, however, difficult to form a very plausible conjecture as to the nature of the original provision; and if the conjecture is a true one, it certainly furnishes a powerful argument against the change proposed. It is a well ascertained fact that the ancient juries were bodies which combined the functions of judges with those of witnesses. They were summoned from the neighbourhood (vicinetum—visne—venue) in which the subject to be determined arose, and gave their verdict from their own personal knowledge. They were originally summoned, not merely to transact judicial business, but in order to supply information to the Royal officers on every branch of the executive Government of the country. It was through juries that almost every part of the Royal rights, especially in matters relating either to property or revenue, was ascertained. These juries were called inquests, and the coroner's inquest, by which inquiry is still made into the circumstances attending an unexpected death, is a familiar instance of their character which subsists to the present day. From being mere channels of information, through which the King learnt matters which it was desirable for him to know, whether connected or not with the administration of justice, juries came by degrees to be (as they are at present) the ultimate judges of all matters of fact which may come in question on such occasions. And if, as Lord Campbell says, there was originally no absolute rule requiring that they should be unanimous, the establishment of such a rule may very probab

judges.
Though this conjecture, if true, would show that the practice rests not on caprice but on principle, it would of course leave

open the question as to the soundness of the principle; but this appears to us to rest upon grounds of the most unquestionable solidity. We have become so familiar with the practice of trial by jury that we are perhaps a little too much inclined to look upon it as an institution which stands in need of no justification, and rests upon grounds of such broad obvious expediency that they cannot be misapprehended. The fact that we do so is a good proof of the facility with which custom makes strange things look natural, for surely hardly any institution can be imagined which at first sight is stranger than a jury. Twelve untrained commonplace men are taken at random and set to act as judges of a man's property, his reputation, his liberty, or even his life, and when they have discharged this tremendous function, they return to their common occupations, and very possibly never exercise the judicial office again as long as they live. What is it that gives the verdicts of such bodies as these the weight which in point of fact they have? We answer, with confidence, it is their unanimity. If a particular state of facts is so far proved that twelveaveragemen will concur in stating upon oath their conviction of it, there is a very high probability that it really is as it is alleged to be; but if, after a discussion of six hours, nine ordinary men are of one way of thinking and three ordinary men of the other, the probability is that the allegation is extremely doubtful. If the nine are right, and obviously right, why are not the three convinced, and that after six hours' consultation? We are not to assume corruption, obstinacy, prejudice, or stupidity in the minority more than in the majority. To despise and discourage those who think for themselves, and to induce people to follow each other's views in preference to forming opinions of their own, is a vice quite common enough as it is. We do not view its development in our representative system with favourable eyes, but it would be most disastrous to introduce it into open the question as to the soundness of the principle; but this view its development in our representative system with favour-able eyes, but it would be most disastrous to introduce it into our judicial system also.

There was a sham reasonableness in part of the proposal in question which was extremely characteristic. The verdict of nine against three was to be taken, but not till six hours after the jury had retired. Now, if we presume fairness and ordinary intelligence, the length of the discussion would show that great difficulties were involved in it. If twelve men cannot agree upon a matter of fact between ten A.M. and four P.M., agree upon a matter of fact between ten A.M. and four P.M., though they discuss nothing else all the time, and though their discussion is limited to a narrow range of facts, we have as strong evidence as the nature of the case will allow that the question before them is very doubtful; and we all know that, in fact, such doubts generally arise upon questions of importance. It does certainly seem a wonderful proposal to diminish the value of the verdict in proportion to the increased difficulty and importance of the issue. If the matter is pretty clear (the law would say in effect), it shall only be decided by the unanimous voice of twelve men; but if it is very doubtful, then nine shall decide it. The six-hour proposal would be exactly paralleled by a provision that in capital cases a majority might convict a prisoner, but that in crimes only involving imprisonment unanimity should still be required.

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prisoner, but that in crimes only involving imprisonment unanimity should still be required.

It is plain enough that, when the state of things contemplated by the proposed alteration arises, the probability that the majority are right is by no means expressed by the numerical relation of its numbers to that of the minority. If there are nine ayes to three noes, it is far from being three to one that the ayes are right. What would be proved, on the supposition that all the jurors are of equal intelligence, would be that there were two tenable views of the matter—tenable after mature and careful deliberation, and that one of them was for some reason more readily accepted than the other. We know, however, that in fact no twelve men are equally intelligent, and that when there are two possible views of a subject, reflection is only one of the causes, and that it is by no means the most influential cause, in determining which of the two is the right one. Popular feeling usually decides the choice on such occasions, and it is quite as likely—we should say more likely—that a minority which retained its conviction after six hours' deliberation was right than that the majority was so. This, however, is by no means the only objection to the proposed alteration. It is a compromise between two plans, one of which has given perfect satisfaction for five centuries, whilst the other, in its extreme shape, is advocated by no one. The real alternative of unanimity is the verdict of a bare majority. A verdict given by nine to three goes upon no principle at all. It is a mere proposal for a modified unanimity; and why the unanimity of nine should be better than that of twelve, we cannot understand. The really consistent proposal would be to let seven return a verdict at once; and this would substitute a crude impression, modified by no reflection, for a verdict given after consideration and discussion. That the latter is the result to be wished for is shown, not only by uniwould substitute a crude impression, included by no reflection, for a verdict given after consideration and discussion. That the latter is the result to be wished for is shown, not only by universal consent, but by the principle of the proposed alteration. It is totally impossible to assign anything like a reason why the amount of discussion involved in a delay of six hours should be desirable, whilst that which is produced by requiring unanimity should not should not.

The grievances alleged as grounds for the proposed alteration are absurdly minute, and would be entirely removed if the jury were allowed moderate refreshment and accommodation. An obstinate man, it is said, may, by dint of bodily strength, compel eleven weak men to come over to his view. Those who would so

come over must be so weak in principle, as well as in body, that they would probably be weak in judgment also, and would thus be altogether in the wrong; but in point of fact, as the united experience of almost all the law lords proved, this never happens. Eleven people are not so easily persuaded to perjure themselves to please one.

It is also said that verdicts are frequently a compromise, and that many jurors consent to agree in a result of which they do not approve, because they find the others are against them. How this evil would be removed by requiring unanimity from nine instead of twelve does not appear, but the objection is quite idle. What really happens, as Lord Lyndhurst properly observed, is that the jurors debate the matter. One remembers one thing, one another, and on comparing notes, they agree to a verdict. Surely if a man finds that his view of the case entirely differs from that of eleven other people who have had precisely the same ground for forming an opinion, he is not only justified the same ground for forming an opinion, he is not only justified in reconsidering his views, but peremptorily called upon to do so, for there could hardly be stronger evidence that they need reconsideration.

The only real grievance is that sometimes juries cannot agree, and that the parties are thereby put to great expense and delay; but what is the alternative suggested by the alteration? Practically, that in doubtful cases they should toss up, for a verdict by nine against three is little more than that. Such cases are the by nine against three is little more than that. Such cases are the proper cases for compromise; but the contending parties can compromise for themselves without a court of law to help them. All that can be wished for in the administration of justice is that the result should adequately represent the facts of the case. The object is not to arrive at some decision, right or wrong, but to arrive at a right decision; and if it is impossible to say which of two sides is right, why should not the Court say so? It is no doubt a great misfortune for the parties; but it is not an evil of the law's making. It would only be aggravated if, as soon as a case appeared to be doubtful, the Court were to take the risk of doing a positive injustice. of doing a positive injustice.

We may set against these imaginary grievances the solid advantage of the value of a verdict given unanimously, and of the great security which it affords for the discussion of the case. These matters are of enormous importance, for we must remem-ber that in civil courts it is not mere questions of money that are determined. Character comes into questions of money that are determined. Character comes into question quite as often, and a verdict for the plaintiff or defendant will frequently blast a man's prospects as effectually as a criminal conviction. If it is agreed on all hands that liberty or life shall only be affected by a unanimous verdict, why is character to be exposed to destruction by a divided one?

EDUCATION FOR PEDLINGTON.

FATHERS who want to send their sons to school are often sadly at a loss whom to entrust with the weighty business of education. If they are rich and also busy, they solve the difficulty by selecting one of the most ancient and famous grammarschools. If, having done this, they pay the bills ungrudgingly and steadily close their cars against impertinent innovators in education, their consciences will probably remain undisturbed; and we believe that in the great majority of cases it will turn out that they have done well, and perhaps as well as possible, for their children. But those parents whose means are less ample find this problem not so easy to be disposed of. They are obliged to content themselves with establishments which, whatever be their real merits, can show a much smaller amount of testimony in their favour; and thus the unhappy father finds himself compelled to form an opinion of his own upon a question of which he feels that he is a very unfit judge. He is in the same deplorable position as a well-meaning member of the House of Commons whose capacity for the study of political science is but limited, and who in happier times could have steadily voted with his party, but has now fallen upon evil days in which there is no guide for him but his own judgment. It used to be considered that, among schoolmasters, a first-class graduate of one of the Universities was certainly preferable to a second-class, and a second-class again preferable to a third. If we could lay down as a solid principle that the manufacturing, or trying to manufacture, out of boys first-class men, or falling that, second-class men is education—if we could put aside the boys out of whom neither first nor second-class men result as easily as Brummell did the handkerchiefs which proved incapable of becoming satisfactory ties—if "our failures" could be complacently sent down stairs to be washed up by the laundress and made ready for another trial—the anxieties of parents and guardians might be greatly mitigated. But unhappily the proces

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mothers and some fathers who think that a very little Latin and Greek, and plenty of pure air and good meat and pudding, are the true essentials of education. The holders of this latter opinion may at least claim for it that only money is wanted to give it practical effect; whereas the thoroughgoing enemies of the Grammar and the Gradus cannot easily satisfy themselves, and still less other people, with any proposed substitute. It must be owned, too, that a mother's favourite test of the goodness of a school is extremely simple in its application. If it is easy to win the ladies' verdict, it is also easy to lose it, and then down goes the school. A head-master might more safely leave the verses and themes of his sixth form uncorrected for a month than neglect for a day to answer their mothers' letters. No skill of the Principal in Greek or Latin composition will serve him better than the art of polite and facile letter-writing in his own language. If he can thus please mamma, it may be hoped that papa will lock within his own breast the educational heresies which torment him. On the whole, perhaps, if the head-master of a public school took a first class, and if the table in his house is abundant, and the dormitories are well-ventilated, we had better, if we can afford it, send our sons there, and not keep open in our minds general questions of education, to the disturbance of our professional studies or commercial calculations, which are so much more likely to yield some tangible result.

But to the vast number of persons who cannot afford to send

better, if we can afford it, send our sons there, and not keep open in our minds general questions of education, to the disturbance of our professional studies or commercial calculations, which are so much more likely to yield some tangible result.

But to the vast number of persons who cannot afford to send their sons from home, or to pay highly for their education, the problems at which we have hinted would be much more vexatious if it were not that they are forbidden to arise at all. Those who have not money need not trouble themselves to consider how, if they had it, it might be best spent. Practically, they must buy their children's education of the nearest pedagogue, just as they buy tea and sugar of the nearest grocer. People who have leisure for such pursuits may, if they like, inquire into the genuineness of the articles thus supplied, and will thus get upon the road to some very surprising facts. But the actual customers can give little heed to such investigations. If a man wanta to go quietly about his day's business it is as well for him, at breakfast time, to abstain from examining the tealeaves. The tavern-keeper considered that if the liquor he sold were black, and made people drunk, it answered all the essential conditions of port wine. So the baker might say that his loaves are white and they fill the stomach, and if this argument be not quite conclusive, there is the irrefragable fact that he occupies the corner house in the street in which we live, and that other bakers are further distant, and besides sell a composition of about equal merit. Therefore we are forced, all of us, after more or less contention against the decrees of Fate, to eat our appointed quantity of dirt quietly, and almost the only condition that we make is that it shall be called, in the most emphatic type, "purchome-made bread." And in the same way we must make up our minds to send our children to the schoolmaster who has gained possession of the district. If he is reasonably prudent, the inhabitants can no more dislodge

toiling men.

The days when Pedlington could be content with a simple school and a single master are gone by. It is now thought more proper to describe the person who owns the speculation as the principal. And of course there will be lecturers and examiners. It cannot cost much to purchase the right of adding a man's name to a prospectus. We sometimes wonder whether a publican's cellar contains as many different qualities of beer as there are taps upon his bar-counter. It is quite as strange to see "a sound practical education" made capable of percolating through the mouths of so many lecturers and examiners. The fact that a very few senior boys, who are regarded by all the rest of the school as prodigies, learn a very little Euclid and Algebra,

probably furnishes the foundation for the statement that there are lectures in "mathematics and natural philosophy." The lectures in "chemistry and physical science" we suspect are in chemistry alone, and that of a very elementary kind; and this suspicion is confirmed by a statement of the prospectus that "eminent practical chemists" assist the lecturer. If "physical science" be anything, is it, we might ask, anything different from "natural philosophy?" The distinction between "classics" and "classical literature" is perhaps more intelligible, at least to students who have been used to look forward to examinations dealing with "construe" and "cram" as separate departments of human knowledge. The lecturers and examiners under this head of classics are described as of "Christ Church, Oxford," and "of the British Museum" respectively. Paterfamilias of Pedlington will no doubt feel that a man who is employed all day in handling books must necessarily be a scholar, just as many booksellers suppose themselves to be, in virtue of their calling, critics. It is gratifying to observe that a gentleman who writes himself "of Christ Church, Oxford," is accepted by the Pedlingtonians as their highest authority in classics, while revelations of mathematical truth are received with equal confidence from another gentleman "of the University of Cambridge," but of no particular rank or college. If, as appears probable, these gentlemen have not yet attained the bachelor's degree, we should think that their duties as lecturers and examiners at Pedlington would not interfere much with keeping terms at their respective Universities. The refinements of class-lists and triposes, and even of B.A. and M.A., are little appreciated at Pedlington. Still, even there, it seems that a Classical and Mathematical School must, in order to command public confidence, profess to look to Oxford and Cambridge for its highest teaching. We like to be told that our wine-merchant imports directly from Spain and Portugal, although we believe all the time

our wine-merchant imports directly from Spain and Forugal, although we believe all the time that he manufactures upon his own premises.

Whether such a school as this be or be not "adapted to the wants of the middle classes," it is fully certain that the lower portion of those classes have, in general, no choice but to accept what is thus provided for them. Their sons must not only be "qualified," as the prospectus has it, "for mercantile and manufacturing pursuits" by the only available machinery, but they must be trained up, or at least will grow up, in these schools to become citizens and to influence by their votes their country's destinies. They will be among the men who, by our present constitution, hold political power, and whose continued holding of it is thought by many prudent statesmen to be safer than any other practicable arrangement. Surely, among many strange things to be seen in England, one of the strangest is that all these schools, possessing as they do such vast influence, should be left unrecognised, uncontrolled, unnided by any public authority, to make or mar, as chance wills it, the youthful minds entrusted to them. The heads of such establishments are often very deserving men, who would strive to obtain, and be delighted to possess, a recognition by competent authority of their qualifications for conducting middle-class schools. Pedlington insists that any man who pretends to teach her sons should put at least one collection of initial letters after his name; but even Pedlington would not he less content if these letters certified some one collection of initial letters after his name; but even Pedlington would not be less content if these letters certified some solid, useful fact. Adulterators of food seem to be protected by the general consent of tradesmen, but impostors in education would be gladly disowned by capable and conscientious teachers.

DOD'S MARTYRS.

A PECULIAR façon de parler is rapidly gaining ground among our legislators. They seem to ignore the bare existence of a thing so coarse and antiquated as English party spirit. Nothing goes down with a British House of Commons that is not labelled "Duty," and a good deal of exceedingly suspicious-looking stuff finds its way under that title down their throats. In ordinary life, people have grave difficulty in discriminating between the various motives—the selfish and the unselfish—which, they are conscious, influence their action. It is not so easy to dissect one's own conduct and to deliver a clinical lecture upon its component parts. And so we touch but lightly on the subject of our inner selves, and refuse to carry the analysis beyond a certain point. But these delicate shades of nicety present no obstacle at all to our more metaphysical statesmen. They can read at a glance anxiety for the Republic's weal where our grosser vision fails us, and can trace in every move a latent solicitude for England's honour. If Lord Derby resigns to-day, and the Queen sends for Lord John to-morrow, the first thing we shall hear will be that he has not felt equal to the serious responsibility of declining office. Politicians do not now-a-days say that a spade is a spade, but that a spade has not found it consistent with its duty not to be a spade.

On any political crisis we all know the shape the conflict takes.

For some time past the Opposition have been playing the game of "Distinguished Moderation." This consists in asking exor Distinguished Moderation. This consists in asking extremely sceptical questions at extremely inconvenient moments—in making damaging speeches—in calling attention to awkward appointments—above all, in never concerting a systematic attack unless it is pretty sure to be successful. At length the day approaches. Her Majesty's Ministers (of course under a profound sense of duty) commit themselves to a decided faux pas. On come the hostile forces, each man blowing his own trumpet. The occupants of the Treasury bench meet them with hymns of praise, composed expressly in their own honour. Their adherents form moral squares to repel immoral cavalry. The fight waxes hot and fierce. Should the enemy be worsted in the melde, he retreats to his tents, still to the sound of trumpets, and consoles himself with the contemplation of his disinterested integrity. If Government is beaten, its troops cross over to the opposite position, and prepare in their turn to play the same old part of "Distinguished Moderation."

Now the honour of our strategy expressions as high as that of any

Now the honour of our statesmen stands as high as that of any body of gentlemen in the world. It is not in reality shaken by the fact that rivalry is nowhere to be seen in greater force than in the House of Commons. The laudable ambition of a public life, so far from being inconsistent with, is perhaps even a stimulant of honourable pride. But it is a satisfaction to learn from their own lips that, innocent as a generous party spirit might be deemed, our great politicians are exempt from the suspicion thereof. One of the most amusing features in the late debate was the storm which fell on the Solicitor-General's devoted head for daring to assert that Lord John Russell's Resolution was a bid for place. Even the facetious representative of Dover, whose feelings we all know are tolerably stoical, was shocked at the insinuation. "How dared" the learned gentleman "impute personal motives" to any one within these walls? Are they not all honourable men, as well as honourable members? Again and again throughout the discussion the topic was renewed, whenever a cheer was to be raised, or a sentence pointed. And at each allusion to the virtue of its chiefs, the House fell straightway into rapt admiration of the theme, and the 654 members lifted up their voices in unison, and cried Amen! Now the honour of our statesmen stands as high as that of any

cried Amen!

The truth is, that he who enters St. Stephens leaves behind him the loud roar of the world, and passes into a purer atmosphere of abstract patriotism. Earthly ties have no hold at all upon that bright band that frame their country's laws. Sainted and superior beings, there they sit, night after night, with no object but the nation's welfare, no recompence but the nation's love. From the noble protomartyr for Lambeth upwards, devotion within that assembly is no distinction. No evening passes but we have some daring deed of self-denial. Not to mention the two holocausts which the Ministerial ranks have lately contributed, how can we look without emotion on the many sacrifices of the last few days? Even Mr. Beaumont and Lord Elcho have made a Jonah of Lord Palmerston. As for the honourable gentleman who sits for Stroud, he is so accustomed to be disinterested at the expense of his party, that by this time honourable gentleman who sits for Stroud, he is so accustomed to be disinterested at the expense of his party, that by this time it must cost him but little effort. Indeed, the Commons are growing almost ethereal. More "spiritual creatures" than we have any conception of "walk the earth, both when we sleep and when we wake." Such is the blaze of virtue from all sides, that we scarcely know which way to turn. Ministers have fixed their eyes on heaven, and only come down again to earth at mealtimes and for the debate. As for the Opposition, wings are growing under the waistcoats of its staunchest members. Mr. Bernal Osborne prays daily to be preserved from the snares and temptations of office, and Lord Palmerston's well-known unworldly spirit is working such havoc in his constitution that we can hardly expect him to live through Lent. In fine, Dod's Parliamentary Companion is but a carnal name for Dod's Book of Martyrs.

of Martyrs.

Sir Hugh Cairns committed a serious blunder in supposing that "party spirit" was a term to be found in any Parliamentary dictionary. He had the audacity to see spots in the sun. Considering how remarkably free from one-sidedness his own speeches have lately been, his error is most wonderful. But it becomes simply ludicrous when we reflect that it is the polished mirror of Lord John's mind in which he thinks he has found a flaw. Who after this is safe, if the Solicitor-General takes to throwing stones all round him at those he fancies he observes breaking a comafter this is safe, if the Solicitor-General takes to throwing stones all round him at those he fancies he observes breaking a commandment? So the unhappy candidate for future legal eminence was buffeted by Mr. Osborne, kicked by Lord Palmerston, and (bitterest blow of all!) finally ordered to apologize by Mr. Gladstone. Let us leave him to his remorse, and trust that the ecclesiastical discipline of this penitential season may restore him to that purity of mind and unsuspiciousness of heart which characterize his brother senators.

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characterize his brother senators.

Warned by his fate, we subscribe to all that the most superstitious reverence can require. If all the ghosts of Cabinets overthrown by Lord John's stalwart arm were to appear one after the other, they should not compel us to believe him other than immaculate. From the irregularity of his late move, and the obvious results which must follow from its success, a dispassionate observer might perhaps have concluded that the noble Lord was playing for power. That is precisely the point in which a dispassionate observer would be wrong. Lord John has no wish for power—not in the least. During this last year, while the "great principle" of government by minority has been "upon its trial," how calm, how considerate has been his policy, as well as that of his illustrious rival the member for Tiverton! "Unexampled forbearance" is the expression that the latter uses to denote it; but the term, we all feel, is not strong enough. Nothing but the exemption which it is understood the noble Viscount enjoys from the hereditary infirmities of Adam's race can have kept him up to the mark, though the continual

society of editors of religious papers may have done a good deal. As for Lord John Russell, he framed his Resolution with deep pain and his followers all vote for it with regret. What deal. As for Lord John Russell, he framed his Resolution with deep pain, and his followers all vote for it with regret. What may be the consequences he does not seek to inquire. After all, the only feeling with which a patriotic mind can contemplate accession to office is that of Christian resignation. Should Providence see fit to confer the first seat in a Ministry upon him, he will bow to its decision, as he would have acquiesced in his younger days, had destiny entrusted him with the command of the Channel Fleet. Meanwhile, he stands a monument of patient patriotism. The skies are dropping golden opportunities on every side of him. Windfalls may shower upon his head; he does not once look up. Perhaps he may be persuaded to open his mouth, but nothing on earth shall induce him not to shut his eyes. It is consoling, as the result of generalization, to remark that such devoted magnanimity does not often go unrewarded. We are reassured of the moral government of the world when we notice that distinctions continually fall to the lot of those who seek them so little and deserve them so much.

world when we notice that distinctions continually fall to the lot of those who seek them so little and deserve them so much. To pass from jest to earnest, we have had almost enough of this talk about duty. Perpetual protestations of disinterestedness are quite unnecessary, and become at last (shall we confess it?) a little tedious. England has confidence to the full in the members of her House of Commons. The greatest proof of it she can give is that she sends them to represent her there. She does not seek to scrutinize too deeply the hidden impulses of each heart, knowing that man is fallible—that the best actions are but curious compounds—and that Parliament is not ipsofacto exempted from all the weaknesses that affect mankind. She finds herself none the worse served for the conflict of interests and ambition in political life. If anything would be likely to provoke her suspicion, if not her contempt, it is the growing fashion of disclaiming all but the purest motives. Let honourable gentlemen at St. Stephen's make themselves quite easy. Their country is not prepared to think them either much better or much worse than the rest of her sons.

THE GOSPEL ACCORDING TO BEECHER.

THE GOSPEL ACCORDING TO BEECHER.

The one great desideratum in all human policy is to know what will be the result of our choice. This is, of course, the baldest truism; but the work of political and moral philosophy is to foretell the future of nations and individuals by reading the actual phenomena of the present. As to individuals, it is almost impossible for any man to foresee his own certain future in his neighbour's present; and the nearer, therefore, we can get to the recognition of our own double, the more valuable is he as a study to ourselves. And this is the value of the United States to England. There, as in a prophetic mirror, we can see the England and English of the future. America is fond of representing itself as England full-grown; and in a sense it is. There we see what are tendencies among ourselves ripened into national characteristics. Our eccentricities are fixed and developed into national manners—our foibles and accidents become normal. We doubt whether America represents our character in its present expansion; but it certainly does show what the exceptions of our system may be, if they are seized upon as our essentials. It is for this reason that statesmen are so keenly alive to the actual working of the American constitution, because

present expansion; but it certainly does show what the exceptions of our system may be, if they are seized upon as our essentials. It is for this reason that statesmen are so keenly alive to the actual working of the American constitution, because unquestionably there is a large, some think a growing, tendency to Americanize our political institutions. The ballot and paid representatives may be doubtful theoretically; but there is happily America to show us these things at work. Just as sagacious people judge of successes and chances of success by submitting them to a foolometer, so the real use of the American Republic is to help us to read our own future.

Especially is this the case in religious matters. Here in England we used to have an Established Church, and we have it still in name; but every year's legislation is tending to Americanize the English religion. Voluntaryism may have a good deal to say for itself. It may be theoretically right, as connected with the logical completeness of the Toleration Act, to get rid of Church-rates and the national provision for religion. Religion, we may be told, is so precious a thing that men are best taught to value it by making them feel the value of it; if people value religion, they will pay for it; and if they do not value it, they will not be taught to value it by having it presented to them gratis. The answer to this usually is, that under this view of things the poor man would get no religion at all. Either view appears to us in England a pretty subject for theory; but we cannot enter into it, because it is not a matter of experience. We know no more from our own knowledge what would come of it, were there nothing but Voluntaryism, than we know about the creed of the inhabitants of Jupiter. But in the United States they have got the thing which we are theorizing about. A paragraph has just appeared in the newspapers, stating the results of the auction of pews in "the church of that popular preacher, the Rev. Henry Ward Beecher, pastor of the Plymouth Church,

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system to be introduced into every church in England, it is worth looking at the system in its perfection—more especially as Mr. Henry Beecher Stowe is at the trouble, "in answer to a remonstrance," of defending it, not without ingenuity and com-

Mr. Henry Beecher Stowe is at the trouble, "in answer to a remonstrance," of defending it, not without ingenuity and completeness. He says:—

A church, when it deals with material things, is subject to just the same commercial law as any other body. Buying and selling in a church are just the same as in a store. Both should be honest and equitable, and, if they are, it is all sham to talk of the church being too sacred for worldly things. Whenever a church comes to that part of its business which is secular and requires commercial wisdom, then it must stand, just like any other honest concern, subject to all the equitable laws of matter and money. The pews must be sold and taxed, or rented every year, and this must be done publicly, that all may have a chance; and if the pows are not much sought after, there will be but little trouble or complaint. But if the pews are fewer than the applicants—if ten men want seats when but one can be accommodated—how are we to select which shall have them? Shall there be a perpetual scramble? Then the strongest will get them. Shall they be rented perivately? Then the slert and shrewd will get them. Shall they be rented penly and in fair competition? Then, inevitably, they must follow the commercial law, and the man who wants them most, and has the means of paying the most, must have them.

This is exhaustive, or, as the vulgar would say, goes the whole hog. This is Political Economy in excelsis. You must sell religion in the dearest market, and when it is perfect there will be no cheap market. Religion being only a commercial article, the cheap religion is, by the force of the terms, worthless. A man who cannot sell his doctrine has no more right to be a teacher in religion than a tradesman has to open a store of upselegable. in religion than a tradesman has to open a store of unsaleable

in religion than a tradesman has to open a store of unsaleable rubbish.

One wants, of course, a few correctives of the old-fashioned book which is usually thought to contain the axioms and principles of religion! How hardly shall they that have riches enter into the kingdom of heaven, says some One. How hardly shall they that have not riches enter into Mr. Beecher's temple, says Mr. Beecher. Without money and without price, is the offer of the Evangelical prophet—the best places for the best price, and no pew no salvation, says the Evangelical seat-seller. But further; in religion, as in other things, to understand it, we must look at it only in its perfection. We can only really judge of any work of nature or art in its highest shape. When we talk of the nature of man, we look at man in his perfection—when we discuss a monarchy or a republic, we only look at it in its theoretical and abstract completeness. So with religion. Mr. Henry Beecher is, of course, the great ideal towards which all religious teachers ought to aspire and are tending. All religious teachers, then, being supposed to be perfect—all being as they ought to be, duplicates and repetitions of Mr. Beecher—his congregation is to be regarded as the noble type and example of all Christian churches. And what a beautiful and symmetrical organization—none but the very best society and its cream's cream forming the truly religious. The Upper Ten Thousand and the Truly Pious actually identical! The man who has nought would be naughty, and Christian graces and acquirements would be the natural result of a balance at one's banker's. To heap up riches and to secure treasures in the Heavenly Bank would be only a single operation in the Stock market, and to be a Millionaire and a Saint at the same time would only require the same qualifications.

The Church, divines tell us, is but one in its earthly and heavenly qualifications.

single operation in the Stock market, and to be a minionaire and a Saint at the same time would only require the same qualifications.

The Church, divines tell us, is but one in its earthly and heavenly aspects. The kingdom of God in heaven and the kingdom of God on earth are but functions and forms of the same great Ideal Community. Man's warrant to claim the former is his adoption into the latter. The Church here is not only the preparation for, but actually the rehearsal and contemplation of, the coming glory in Heaven. Now, what a very odd place Heaven would be if Mr. Beecher's account of the Heaven upon earth which his Plymouth Church, New York, must be, is to be taken as the type of Heaven! Heaven, that is, contains none but people well to do in this world—none but those who can afford to pay the best prices for the best places—with many mansions, like the many pews, but all to be put up at auction to the best bidder. The Heaven that is to be, like the Heaven that is, obeys just the same laws as any other body—with the power of the Purse, instead of the power of the Keys, and its Apostles fighting with silver weapons, instead of the poverty which was to subdue the world. One now begins to understand why Chrysostom was usually styled golden-mouthed, and we begin to feel what a "silvery-voiced preacher" really means.

If, as Mr. Beecher neatly and concisely states it, "it is all a sham to talk of the Church being too sacred for worldly things," then, of course, the old saying and promise that to the poor the Gospel is preached, means that to the rich the Gospel, according to Beecher, is preached; and that the old Protestant dislike of pardons, indulgences, and masses for money was a mistake. That system which boldly said "No Penny no Paternoster" came up to Mr. Beecher's standard of "an honest concern, subject to all the equitable laws of matter and money." The laws of matter and money—the law which gives painted windows and gilded mosaics to the religion of the rich as it assigns plate glass and mahogany c

the kingdom of Heaven and of Mr. Beecher"—which ought, in following the inevitable commercial law, to have said, "In my Father's house are many mansions, and in Mr. Beecher's church are many pews, and happy are they who rent them,"—such is the new and improved regime which, it seems, is to supersede the obsolete moralities of a more ancient dispensation.

THE APOLOGY FOR ADULTERATION AND FALSE MEASURES.

the new and improved régime which, it seems, is to supersede the obsolete moralities of a more ancient dispensation.

THE AFOLOGY FOR ADULTERATION AND FAISE MEASURES.

CERTAIN observations which we made last week on the Practice of selling short lengths of cotton for long lengths, and the control of the track, here been met with not unnatural comments; and we have received several communications, some endorsing, some contravening our argument. Of the former we need say little, except that they strengthen our position by additional facts. We have been referred to a series of letters signed "Amicus," which appeared in the Times of January last, detailing many facts even more discreditable than those which came out in the case of Taylor v. Degetau. It is, so the writer urges, only the more respectable manufacturers who give the actual measure of 260 and 270 yards for the theoretical 300. But there exists a rect known as the Paisley Reel—how very curious, by the way, it is, that in drunkenness, illegitimacy, and short measures, moral Scotland always holds a bad pre-eminence—of which No. 1, marked 100 yards, contains only 60, while No. 2, marked 300, contains only 160, and No. 3, also marked 300, holds but 150. But this is not the worst. These are goods got up for the home trade. Nos. 4 and 5, shipping goods, are higher specimens of British art. No. 4, marked Fersian thread six cord, warranted 300 yards, is, in fact, only three cord, and measures icc yards. No. 5 is a still mobler achievement, and manufacturing skill culminates in the sublime production—"Royal British Thread too yards, which measures caused ya yards. So that while we were very bold in condemning the modest winder who only gained one-sixth—a poor 16 per cent. on the difference between his promise and performance—we might have sung the economical triumphs of the greater artist who added 300 per cent. to his profits. It is only due to British lingenuity and commercial thrift to record its best chains to admiration. We are bound at the same time to the

and silk and cotton, are not only beautiful, but in all sorts of ways valuable and useful. But, in point of fact, the argument is made to cover a great deal more than it will sustain. Common sense and ordinary justice can draw a line sufficiently practical between adulteration and mixed manufactures. A mousseline de laine, as we believe it is called, and the Royal Persian thread, warranted 300 yards=260, are very different things. The sort of imposition which these articles respectively represent does not require an acute moralist to distinguish it. It is quite beside the real question to say (even granting the allegation to be correct) that the article is fairly worth its market price, and that there is no excess of profits. The simple fact is that there is a large patent untruth in the one case, and not in the other. Had the Persian thread-reels been issued without the fraudulent inscription, we should only have regretted that competition had, perhaps unavoidably, come to this, that you were induced to buy what looked like a good reel, but what, if you were at the trouble of verifying it—which, without any warrant and faults included, as a prudent purchaser you were bound to do—you might very soon have ascertained to be a very small reel; but here the matter would have ended. Indeed, trade must ultimately come to this. With these deflections from a high standard there are always these corrections to 61l heals. must ultimately come to this. With these deflections from a high standard, there are always these correctives to fall back upon. If one manufacturer makes his bottles too thick, com-petition will compel another manufacturer to offer a thinner glass and more liquor; and the fabric which contains most silk and least worsted, both at the same price, soon beats that in which the worsted is in excess.

gass and note inquor; and the same price, soon beats that in which the worsted is in excess.

But there is a natural corrective to this "natural tendency of trade." Trade, after all, must fall back upon something higher and truer than this system of mutual suspicion and distrust. Life is too short, and the natural generous confidence between man and man too precious, for people to be spending all their time in verifying, gauging, remeasuring, reweighing, and analysing every article of sale and purchase. Hence the necessity of a warranty. Now in law every ticket in a shop window, every bill of parcels and invoice of goods, is a warranty. The label on a cotton-reel is a warranty, and the law will enforce this warranty. A case occurred in which a stationer affixed to a parcel of envelopes in his window the ticket, "Envelopes 6d. per hundred." A purchaser asked for those envelopes, and an inferior article was handed to him. On complaining he was coolly answered, "We did not say these envelopes 6d. a hundred; we only said Envelopes 6d. a hundred; here are envelopes at 6d. a hundred, and cheap at the price." The tradesman was compelled to sell envelopes of the quality in the window at 6d. So an action might be sustained against the seller of any reel marked 300 yards but only containing 250. We doubt, therefore, whether any new Act of Parliament is required to protect the home purchaser. With shipping and export goods the case is different. There might, for the general sake of British manufactures, be inspectors of all exported goods, both as to measure, weight, quality, and warranty, expressed or implied. The whole interests of the country require this or something like it; and it is the duty of Government to maintain the national character. We say all this on the assumption most favourable to the manufacturer, that his deception is apparent rather than real. In nine cases out of ten, however, we believe that an enormous and unjust profit is exacted by the false measures, and that the consumer pays for the 250 yards

PRINCESS'S THEATRE.

ON witnessing the gorgeous revival of Henry V., one is almost tempted to believe that Mr. Charles Kean has cherished a strong desire to put the "Chorus" in a false position. There stands Mrs. Kean, as the Muse of History, looking like a fine polychrome statue, and speaking in accents most musical, on purpose to tell us that a small stage, called in deprecating terms a "cockpit," cannot hold "the vasty fields of France," supplicating us to "piece out" imperfections with our thoughts, and comparing the whole company, Mr. Kean included, to "eiphers," which may help us to make up large numbers. Decidedly that "Chorus," sanctified as she may look in her cloudy dwelling, is a siren of the most dangerous kind, luring her victims by that most potent of all charms, flattery. Mr. Kean puts upon his stage the finest historical spectacle her victims by that most potent of all charms, flattery. Mr. Kean puts upon his stage the finest historical spectacle ever witnessed—the sort of thing that would not be believed to exist, were not the fame of the manager for achieving impossibilities already established. His siege of Harfleur is the first genuine battle ever seen on theatrical boards—a noisy, blazing, crowding, smoking reality, that appeals to all the senses at once. His army may be a hundred thousand strong, for all the spectators know to the contrary, as he never allows its head or tail to be seen, while he shows a great number of persons, all proper specimens of humanity, without so much as a dummy, living or dead, among them. Your supernumerary is not, generally speaking, the most intelligent or the most imaginative of mankind; he is as unlike as possible to Shakspeare's "muse of fire that would ascend the brighest heaven of invention." His arms have a natural tendency to adhere to his sides, after the Egyptian school of art—his face is but slippery as a

retainer of expression. Yet into many scores of individuals corresponding to this type does Mr. Kean, Prometheuslike, infuse a vivifying spark, so that they actually beam with intelligence—actually depict emotions. Such a group as Mr. Kean gathers round him to hear the "Crispin speech"—as it is conveniently called—is a prodigious work of pictorial art, with the peculiarity that the painter has to use colours that will not be mixed and toned down at pleasure, but have a stupid will of their own, unfavourable to blending. There they were, those lusty Englishmen, rapt in attention, swelling with enthusiasm; ready to shed tears of devotion, and yet we know perfectly well that they all understood little and cared less about what they heard and saw, and that the mind they exhibited belonged exclusively to Mr. Charles Kean, comparable to Krishna, when, as the Indian legend tells us, he became sixteen thousand individuals at once. More marvellous still is the mob assembled on London Bridge to witness the return of King Henry in the "Episode," for here, besides the general interest, there are innumerable private woes and joys to be delineated. As for the pageant which in this same "Episode" appears as a more formal welcome to the victorious monarch, and is on the old-fashioned allegorical principle, it has all the attractions of Bolingbroke's entry in Richard II., while much more splendid and various. The details of the pomp are taken from a record of the period; but we strongly suspect that the original was but a gingerbread affair compared to the copy, and that Sir Nicholas Wotton, the Mayor, who had the honour of receiving King Henry, did not understand such matters half so well as Mr. Charles Kean. If he did, we can only say that the talent of Lord Mayors for shows in the fifteenth century must have greatly exceeded that of their successors in modern times. However, we don't want to re-write the descriptions that look so long in the daily papers. Let it suffice to say that as a combination of manifold effects, all c

footlights

Piece out our imperfections with your thoughts, For 'tis your thoughts that now must deek our kings.

Thoughts indeed! The empty loungers who curl And so on. light moustachies in the stalls and feign a vacant stare when-ever the action becomes more than ordinarily interesting—the inght moustachos in the stails and leigh a vacant state whenever the action becomes more than ordinarily interesting—the pretty inanities of the feminine gender, who have no mind at all—the thoroughly prosaic traders in the pit, who half regret that they are losing an evening in such an idle amusement as a play—the holiday-making patrons of the gallery who, regaling themselves between the acts, consider that the drama and beer ought to be enjoyed sandwich-fashion—these are the mighty intellects that are to hold council together and "piece out" with their thoughts the imperfections of Mr. Charles Kean. At an enormous outlay, and after boundless research, our greatest manager has done everything he could to illustrate the heroic tale of Agincourt. But no matter how great his energies, no matter how perfect his accomplishment, no matter for his masterly combination of the religious and the soldierly natures in his delineation of Henry, the imagination of all that tag-rag and bob-tail, well-dressed and ill-dressed, is to begin where that of Mr. Charles Kean leaves off, and they are to be kind enough to piece him out. Oh Clio, the flattery is too gross. Herodotus, father of history, has also been called "father of lies." Does the Muse of History aspire to that bad eminence? As the fourth Act approached, we literally trembled for the

of lies." Does the Muse of History aspire to that bad eminence? As the fourth Act approached, we literally trembled for the Chorus. Her gesticulations were so apt, her descriptions were so glowing, her face was so finely lit up with enthusiasm and intelligence, the sonorous words rolled so beautifully from her tongue, that we could not refuse her our sympathies, in spite of her reckless adulation. At all events, the flatteries to which we have already referred were spoken before the commencement of the play. She could not be found out till her speech was over, and she had fairly quitted the stage. But when we remembered that Shakspeare required her to say, in his preface to the fourth Act to the fourth Act-

We shall much disgrace,
With four or five most vile and ragged foils,
Right ill-disposed, in brawl ridiculous,
The name of Agincourt—

there was real cause for uneasiness. Henry's army had now been seen fighting at Harfleur, and marching through Picardy. His men were amply supplied with weapons; the metallic encasements of the officers dazzled every eye; many of the pieces of the armour were entirely novel to a modern audience. And were all these battle-axes, and swords, and pikes, to be stignatized as a few "ragged foils?" No. The heart of Mr. Kean relented. With all his delight in persecuting Clio, he could not bring her to this humiliation. The lines in question are omitted.

The oddest thing is, that there are people in the world—people who print too—who affect a wish that the words of the "Chorus" were strictly correct. These sigh for the good old days of

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ragged foils, and are inclined to think that when David Garrick wore a tartan scarf above a full court-dress he was most appropriately costumed for Macbeth. Historical accuracy in the details of decoration is with them a "false Fidessa," an evil principle feigning to be a spirit of light. Amid the glories of the "Episode" they will bewail the omission of Captain Macmorris, though he did nothing but take his Redeemer's name in vain, deforming it with an obsolete Milesian dialect. With more reason they will regret the loss of the Archbishop of Canterbury's fine speech, comparing, after Virgilian fashion, the state of man to that of bees; but they will unreasonably refuse to qualify their regret with the reflection that our present histrionic force will not supply Archbishops that will give such speeches—a hindrance to action in spite of their beauty—so as to produce the alightest effect upon an audience. Mr. Kean, in his frank, manly, unaffected style, may remind the soldiers of the festival of St. Crispin, and Mr. Cooper, a veteran elocutionist, may, in the character of Exeter, describe the deaths of York and Suffolk—and everybody will listen. But a long speech spoken by an actor of no weight, sustaining a part of no interest, will fail to produce any excitement whatever, as indeed everybody knows who deduces his opinions, à posteriori, from actual observation of the public—not à priori from mere internal theory or thought-begetting wish.

In Shakspeare's time, an approximation of the stage to reality could not be effected—in our own days it can. In Shakspeare's time, people to whom the theatre was a novel institution could be satisfied with listening to words, but they never pored over

In Shakspeare's time, an approximation of the stage to reality could not be effected—in our own days it can. In Shakspeare's time, people to whom the theatre was a novel institution could be satisfied with listening to words, but they never pored over playbooks; whereas now, those who care for words only read their "Shakspeare" at home, and do not frequent the theatre at all. The leading character in certain plays affords such scope for great acting that the decorative part of the drama becomes of secondary importance; but of these plays *Henry V*. is not one, and the manager who took the Chorus for his guide in producing it would be a monomaniae seeking his own destruction.

and the manager who took the Chorus for his guide in producing it would be a monomaniae seeking his own destruction.

Mr. Charles Kean knows perfectly well what he is about. When he plays Hamlet or Louis XI. he puts his archæology in the background, perfectly aware of the attractive force of his own genius as an actor when it has free play. When, on the other hand, he revives Henry V., he gives the leading part all the value of which it is susceptible, but he calls in accessories to his aid. That room with an open front, and with certain mechanical arrangements, which we term a "stage," may be used for two purposes, both proper to theatrical art. It will serve to exhibit the effect of masses or the genius of individuals. Mr. Kean uses it for both these purposes, and whichever direction he chooses he is without a rival.

REVIEWS.

PLUTARCH'S LIVES.*

THERE are very few books which have exercised a wider influence, or which possess greater claims to the reputation which they have acquired, than Plutarch's Lives. We could hardly mention any other classical book, with the single exception of Esop's Fables, which has become part of the popular literature of modern times. The great poets, philosophers, and historians of Greece and Rome are, indeed, known by carly association to those who have received a classical education, but they are known to very few who have not. There are probably not a hundred people in England who have read Gifford's Juvenal or Hobbes' Thucydides, except as commentaries on the original. Pope's Homer, no doubt, has a permanent popularity, but it is a popularity which Pope won for himself, and not for the author whom he translated. With Plutarch's Lives the case is entirely different. Almost every one is more or less acquainted with them, but hardly any one, however good a scholar he may be, has read them in Greek. As the book does not form part of the ordinary course of reading which entitles people to claim the honours of classical scholarship, and as it is very bulky, the latter fact is easily explained; but its abiding and extensive popularity is owing to deeper causes. Plutarch's Lives unquestionably present at once the most complete and the most interesting picture of the ancient heathen world that any single book affords; indeed, it is the only picture of those times which it is possible to accept as being at once authentic and lively. Most of the ancient histories require a degree of collateral knowledge to make them intelligible which no one can possess without a thorough classical training. To an ordinary English reader, a mere translation of Thucydides would be all but unintelligible, and utterly uninteresting, whilst the works both of Tacitus and Livy derive nearly the whole of their character and most of their interest from peculiarities of style which no translation could possibly retain. Each of these books, moreover, gives

· Plutarch's Lives. Translated by R. Langhorne.

lization which enables an attentive observer to trace its main features with very little extrinsic aid. No one can read Plutarch carefully, even in the common translations, without being in a position to form a conception—the clearness of which will of course depend on the amount of independent knowledge which he brings to the consideration of the subject, but which is pretty sure to be accurate as far as it goes—of what men were during the period towards which our early attention is so strenuously directed. Indeed, it is quite surprising to find, upon returning to the subject in maturer life, how entirely our earliest notions of Greeks and Romans were derived from Plutarch. There are probably few persons who, when they think of classical times, have not an indistinct notion of a set of venerable men always saying and doing memorable things. A certain dignified completeness, like that of the figures in Raphael's picture of the "School of Athens," always seems to attend upon their names—a statuelike repose and composure which extends to the language which they used, with its orderly precision and various but systematic inflexions.

It requires no very profound classical knowledge to be aware

It requires no very profound classical knowledge to be aware It requires no very profound classical knowledge to be aware of the fact that this impression is by no means a true one. The increased intelligence and sympathy with which the subject of ancient history has been studied since the beginning of the present century has effectually taught us that the ancients were not mere embodied sentiments engaged in acting copy-slip maxims for the benefit of posterity, but real men and women very much like ourselves. Niebuhr, Dr. Thirlwall, Mr. Grote, Dr. Arnold, and Mr. Mcrivale have very effectually destroyed the pedantry which threw so thick a veil over the eyes of an earlier generation. It may almost be doubted whether they have not gone too far, and induced us to overlook the differences which really do exist between ancient and modern society.

between ancient and modern society.

Plutarch's Lives certainly produce, or appear to us to produce, the sort of impression to which we have referred as one which modern historians have disturbed, and to some extent exploded; and it seems natural to suppose that his view of the subject of his memoirs should have been more true and more sympathetic than any modern view possibly can be. This is no doubt to some extent the result of the artistic beauty of the Lives—a beauty which the stiffness inseparable from translation veils, though it makes it in some respects more expressive than the original would be; just as a piece of furniture looks stronger and more solid when the varnish is partly rubbed off than when it is quite new. Viewed merely as models of style and composition, we know nothing in modern literature to equal them. The mixture of gravity and spirit with which each successive story is told is infinitely delightful. We get a perfectly distinct notion of each individual without reading a line which inclines us to despise the writer. One of the favourite cants of the present day is that which consists in scoffing at the dignity of history. Instead of pompous accounts of public transactions, give us, it is said, those minute but characteristic incidents which show men as they are—such incidents as novelists invent when they wish to introduce their glaverators to their vendors. between ancient and modern society. of pompous accounts of public transactions, give us, it is said, those minute but characteristic incidents which show men as they are—such incidents as novelists invent when they wish to introduce their characters to their readers. It is one of Lord Macaulay's dicta that Sir W. Temple's love-letters have a far greater historical importance than cartloads of protocols and despatches. In the hands of a man of genius like Lord Macaulay himself, such a doctrine may perhaps be turned to good results; but as nothing can be more flattering to the idleness and feebleness of common minds, no principle is more dangerous in the hands of common writers. Masses of trivial irrelevant twaddle have been offered to the world on the strength of it, which will go far to make posterity believe either that we were a generation of fools or that we deputed the fools of the generation to write accounts of the rest. Plutarch furnishes, perhaps, as good an example as could be cited of the means by which this folly may be avoided, whilst the grain of truth which it feebly tries to grasp is retained. Nearly every life contains characteristic anecdotes, many of which have almost passed into proverbs—each gives a clear portrait of the person described—and each conveys a broad definite impression of the principal transactions in which he was engaged. If any one will try to imagine the sort of lives which Plutarch would have written of Cato the Censor, he will have a faint conception of the grovelling degradation into which modern biography has fallen. The full bitterness of the melancholy truth can only be realized by those whose province it is to review whatever rubbish the booksellers find it profitable to publish.

There are circumstances connected with Plutarch's Lives which, though independent of their artistic merits, tend to heighten

whatever rubbish the booksellers find it profitable to publish. There are circumstances connected with Plutarch's Lives which, though independent of their artistic merits, tend to heighten their pictorial or rather statuelike effect. Our readers no doubt remember the parable in the Pilgrim's Progress, according to which, when Christian went to the Interpreter's house, he saw a room which looked clean and orderly. A servant entered the room to sweep it, and as soon as she had done so raised clouds of dust which quite destroyed its former propriety. Afterwards, she brought a basin of water, and sprinkling that about the room enabled it to be thoroughly and effectually cleansed. According to Bunyan the room is the heart of man, the dust his natural corruption, and the sweeping the law which brings it to light and makes him conscious of it. The water is grace, by which the final purification is effected. It is impossible to read Plutarch without realizing the truth of the first part of this allegory—the third belongs to another order of thought

and experience. The repose of the heathen and the conflict of the Christian world is the most striking contrast which this world of contrasts affords. In an exaggerated form it may still be seen in India and China. Those countries, and especially the latter, present the spectacle of a people who have their own laws and landmarks, and their own ideal of excellence, and who are not only contented with it, but astonished and horrified at the notion that it should not be universally accepted. The contrast of race and temperament between the East and West is so great that it prevents us from recognising in its full force the contrast of religious belief; but with the ancient Greeks and Romans it was otherwise. They were Europeans imbued with all the instincts of Western Europe in their strongest form, and connected with us as ancestors with descendants.

In Plutarch's Lives we see the picked specimens of our predecessors as they were before Christianity had introduced new elements into every department of human life. A more curious and profoundly interesting spectacle cannot be imagined. In what respects do we excel these great men? In what do we fall short of them? Perhaps no question can be at once so interesting and so curious; for whatever we may be inclined to believe from vanity and that time-serving disposition which for the present finds it convenient to claim (too often successfully) an exclusive title to the advantages, temporal and eternal, of Christianity, it is a truth which every candid and thoughtful man must admit,

sent finds it convenient to claim (too often successfully) an exclusive title to the advantages, temporal and eternal, of Christianity, it is a truth which every candid and thoughtful man must admit, that each half of the question urgently stands in need of an answer. There are points, no doubt, of vital importance on which Plutarch's Lives may lead us to congratulate ourselves; but there are other points, and they are neither few nor small, on which they read us a very different lesson. Perhaps the most remarkable respect in which the ancient heathen world different from our own is in the estimate which those who lived in which they read us a very different lesson. Perhaps the most remarkable respect in which the ancient heathen world differed from our own is in the estimate which those who lived in it formed of themselves and of their own lives and actions. That side of religious belief which contemplates futurity is by no means an exclusively Christian possession. The lessons of "the great teacher Death" are taught impartially in every age and nation of the world, and the various aspects which men may wear in his presence—resigned, defiant, hopeful, or indifferent—found their expression then as they do now. When Bion lamented that the mallow, the parsley, and the anise had a fresh birth every year, whilst we men sleep in the hollow earth a long unbounded never-waking sleep—when Cephalus told Socrates, who came to question him on the nature of justice, that as life drew on, Hades and the shades and judges who peopled it assumed a dreadful substance and reality—when Horace preached the doctrine of eating and drinking, for to-morrow we die, they only expressed feelings with which sceptical, believing, and indifferent observers in the present day regard the Christian doctrines respecting the rewards and punishments of a future state. Though the nature of the view which men take of the world to come in many essential respects remains the same, however much its intensity may have altered, the view which ancients and moderns entertain respecting the present world has undergone a profound change—a change which may be described to some extent by saying that the prevailing temper of modern times has almost always been one of deep-seated discontent. It may be said, with considerable plausibility, that that which we call reform and social progress is only a transient and exceptional phenomenon, and that its connexion with Christianity is less intireform and social progress is only a transient and exceptional phenomenon, and that its connexion with Christianity is less intiphenomenon, and that its connexion with Christianity is less intimate than it is usually supposed to be, and not by any means certain beyond dispute. But it cannot be denied that it has often, perhaps generally, been the special characteristic of Christian societies to believe in the existence of an ideal of goodness and purity which makes the common affairs of life bear a very imperfect and wretchedappearance, and to have also a conception of the demands of duty, its sources and its sanctions, which makes every common fault appear greatly more dreadful than it appeared to heathens. M. Huc tells us that one of the greatest of the Chinese emperors on his deathbed commented on his past life by saying that he was the greatest and most fortunate of men—that he had nothing to wish for, nothing to repent of, no flaw in his happiness and prosperity—and that, having had enough, though not too much, he was now quite willing to die. Hardly any man in a Christian country could entertain such a feeling; and if he did, regard for the common sentiments of his friends would prevent him from expressing it. Plutarch certainly stops far short of the insolent self-satisfaction of the Chinese; and by his constant references to the instability of human affairs, and his belief in supernatural interferences with the common course of events arising, as he says, from the course of events arising, as he says, from the course of events arising, as he says, from instability of human alaris, and his belief in supernatural interferences with the common course of events arising, as he says, from the envy of fortune or the decrees of fate, he shows that he appreciated to a considerable extent, what we may perhaps venture to call the seamy side of human affairs. But the temper which pervades his Lives is one of great self-satisfaction. It is easy to conceive the astonishment and disgust with which he would have listened to a petition on the part of Aristides or Timoleon, that neither the splendour of anything that was great nor the conceit of anything that was good in them might withdraw their eyes from looking on themselves as sinful dust and ashes.

of anything that was good in them might withdraw their eyes from looking on themselves as sinful dust and ashes.

It is of course an easy, as it is a very common thing, to make the very consciousness of sin and guilt which distinguishes the Christian from the heathen world a subject of Pharisaical self-righteousness. Too many persons in the present day like to be despised and to despise themselves; and popular lecturers seldom hit a more fruitful vein than when they pick holes in the characters of the great and good men of the ancient world, and pour contempt on them in comparison with the Sunday-school teachers

of the present day. Indeed, we have seen official comparisons between Plutarch's Lives and the little books which are published by Tract Societies, very greatly to the advantage of the latter. We can by no means agree in this estimate of haman nature. The lives of Timoleon, of Pericles, and of Seipio, seem to us far more wholesome and instructive than the life of the Heir of Redelyffe. We thoroughly sympathize with the spirit which, half-unconsciously half-accidentally, has made the study of classical history essential parts of a liberal education. It is at once a most memorable and most melancholy truth that human nature is very corrupt—that it contains much that is evil—bad thoughts, which stimulate bad passions and lead to bad actions; and the fact is one which can never be safely forgotten or kept out of sight; but it is also true, and hardly less important, that evil is a corruption—an accident—a perversion, and not the essence of human nature, and that its great constituent elements are not bad but good. The moral law is a series of prohibitions—"Thou shalt not kill," "Thou shalt not steal;" but utter immobility and vacancy, though it might involve no breach of any one of these rules, is not that ideal of human nature. Who would really wish his children to be idiots or to die in their infancy? That which is thus restrained and hemmed in—the stream to which morality supplies the floodgates and dams—must be good, and that stream is fed by the normal passions and inclinations of man. Under the existing dispensation men are too apt to lose sight of this great truth, and to make the tacit assumption that it is only by a happy inconsistency that good men ever take part in the common affairs of life. Perhaps this habit of mind is less common at present than it sometimes has been, but it exists very widely, and a vast proportion of the language which people use on these subjects could only be justified by assuming its wisdom. Trivial instances sometimes prove such propositions more forcibly than more important on

Moses and Joshua, Samuel and David, is not weakened, but strengthened, by a comparison with those of Lycurgus, Solon, Aristides and Cato.

It would be a great omission in noticing Plutarch's Lives to pass over entirely without remark their historical importance. The influence which they exercised over the minds of the more cultivated actors in the French Revolution can only be compared to that which the Bible exercised over the Puritans; and if any evidence were wanted to show the superiority of the scriptural over the classical view of life, it might be derived from a comparison between the Girondins and the Puritans of the Long Parliament. The characteristic levity and ignorance with which large bodies of clever Frenchmen applied the precedents of Plutarch to their own circumstances is one of the most curious facts in modern history. That ignorance of the Bible which to the present day distinguishes Frenchmen in so marked a manner from Englishmen, led them into the notion that the virtues of a citizen and soldier were incompatible with those of a Christian; and Plutarch would seem to have stood to many of them in the place of a sort of revelation. Madame Roland and Charlotte Corday are well-known instances of this. Few things can be more striking than the vague but very powerful impression which was produced on the minds not only of women, but of men whose experience might have been expected to have taught them something better, that at some time or other, and under some circumstances or other—though time, place, and circumstances alike seem to have been shadowy in the extreme—there had been a sort of Golden Age of Republicanism, in which all political arrangements had worked justly and smoothly, and in which a pitch of virtue had been developed never since attained. We have tried to point out the sort of foundation which Plutarch really does lay for such an impression as this, but it would show wonderful ignorance in any one in the present day to adopt such a view. The dark side of ancient life is so abundan

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the first requisites of art, the heroes themselves were always striking attitudes, and saying to the world, "See how composed and dignified we are." Anything more really and essentially unlike an ancient Greek or Roman than a modern Frenchman it is impossible to conceive. When they tried their very best to be ancient Republicans, they resembled them only as a plaster cast resembles a marble statue.

WALKER'S ORIGINAL.

WALKER'S ORIGINAL.*

A NEW edition has lately been announced of this curious and interesting book. A great portion of its contents are as readable and entertaining now as when they were first published a quarter of a century ago, and the Original could scarcely fail to be popular, if it were but more accessible and better known. Few people know more about it or its author than that Mr. Walker was a police magistrate, and that he wrote about dinners; and those who may have taken up the book and dipped into it may have been repelled by finding a great portion of its contents occupied with questions so distasteful to the ordinary human mind as Parochial Government and the Poor Laws. But the book, even if read straight through, is by no means heavy, and its lighter portions are much more amusing than many books that are professedly entertaining. And so much of the interest attending the disquisitions about Health and Dining is inseparable from the writer himself, that we cannot enjoy them properly unless we go through a few of the duller but very characteristic essays. The Original was published in weekly numbers containing sixteen octavo pages, price threepence, the whole of each number being written by Mr. Walker. The first number appeared on the 20th of May, 1835, and the publication continued without any interruption until the 2nd of December in the same year, when it was discontinued, principally because the author was rich enough and wise enough to say no more when he had nothing more to say. Nothing is more curious about the book, as we see it in its collected form, than to think that an author should have ventured on such a novel experiment with such a very limited stock of matter to trade on. Like many Englishmen of active mind and habits who live in the country, Walker had formed into a hobby or set of hobbies the ideas suggested to him by residence in a country parish. He had taken part in the management of his parish, and he had become interested in Englishmen of active mind and habits who live in the country. Walker had formed into a hobby or set of hobbies the ideas suggested to him by residence in a country parish. He had taken part in the management of his parish, and he had become interested in the fortunes of the poor. Turning these parochial matters over in his mind, he worked himself into a genuine but rather narrow enthusiasm for local self-government, and was an earnest advocate of the doctrine, so congenial to men who are equally shrewd and benevolent, that the poor must never be permitted to depend for maintenance on the rich. In addition to the philosophy or experience derived from his connexion with a parish, and from his observations made in the discharge of his magisterial duties, he carried to the field of authorship some pleasant reminiscences of tours on the Continent, especially in Italy. This was literally all he had to start with, but he was so really interested in the things with which he occupied himself at all, that they seemed to him, as hobbies generally seem to their riders, perfectly inexhaustible. He had little acquaintance with books, but he had read and enjoyed a few good ones, and he had attained in society the valuable knowledge of what is the sort of thing that people like to hear about, and how they like to have it said. Still, the early numbers of the Original are very thin and weak, except where they are uninviting on account of their subject, and there, although we find sense and a certain freshness of style, we do not get anything beyond. But very happily for himself and his readers, Walker, from having nothing else to say, began to write about two things which were of great moment to him personally—vix., what he eat, and how he felt after eating it. He had so evidently studied these great subjects patiently, perseveringly, and profoundly, that his readers at once read with avidity the dicta of a teacher whom they felt to be competent, and who offered to tell them what all well-to-do people long to know—how to eat go

to tell them what all well-to-do people long to know—how to eat good things, and still be well.

Walker had a quiet earnest faith in the all-importance of the stomach, which is comical, perhaps, but which certainly impresses and captivates his readers. It is not any great exaggeration to say that he thought men ought to be good and holy in order that their gastric juice might have the fairest possible play. He specially recommends Christianity as a very healthy religion. The mind is to be disciplined, and control over the passions and feelings is to be acquired, in order that the virtuous man may come to breakfast in a serene frame of mind; while vice and all bad, violent, distracting, and painful passions are discountenanced as likely (more particularly if accompanied by swallowing unripe fruit or the skin of roast meat) to produce an internal fermentation. It would be a great misconception of this philosophy to suppose that its aim is to secure the greatest gratification of gluttony with the least amount of consequent indigestion. No honest English country gentleman could advocate a pure system of bestial enjoyment. What Walker worshipped was not dining, but health. To be well was the great end of his aspirations, for to be healthy was the true foundation of morality and of a right judgment on the affairs and the duties of life. The human body is, he urged, capable of a much higher state of health than that implied in mere freedom from pain. There is a positive sense of health that can be attained, and this gives an

indescribable elasticity, cheerfulness, and vigor to the mind. Walker sawno end to the triumphs that might be attained by watching over the constitution. He asserted that he had succeeded in training himself into such a healthy state that he emitted a peculiar kind of exhalation which prevented his getting dirty. He tested his success by not washing his face for a week, and was pleased to discover that he could not feel, nor his friends see, any difference. He even ventured on the surprising statement that when he walked on the dustiest roads, not only his feet but his stockings remained free from dust. Some of his readers received this with a provoking incredulity, but he informed them, in a subsequent number, that a teacher of health must exact from his disciples a certain amount of faith like that which St. Paul thought himself entitled to expect from the early converts to Christianity. Probably he never succeeded in entirely dispelling the scepticism of the public, but certainly the interest which the papers on Health excited was due to the conviction which they inspired that they were on the whole a faithful record of the experience of the writer.

Health excited was due to the conviction which they inspired that they were on the whole a faithful record of the experience of the writer.

It is not very easy to combat any of the propositions regarding health laid down in the Original, but we may ask whether they have any very general application. It is all very well for a shelved barrister and affluent parishioner to lay out the whole of his time with reference to his intestines, but the directions which Walker gives for attaining the state of body in which the dust flies off even from stockings, seem a sort of satire on the majority of human beings. Health is an expensive luxury, if so much time and money must be expended in acquiring it. Nor is it universally true that to think about health is the way to be healthy. There are many people who torture themselves into illness by their extreme anxiety to be well. They ponder in the looking-glass over the changes in their complexion until they persuade themselves that their only hope is in farinaceous food, or water-drinking, or mountain air. There are many minds which would be almost thrown off their balance by reading the Original. But, unfortunately, the very people who are most likely to take interest in the subject and to try to guide themselves so as in time to emit the correct exhalation, are the very people who are most inclined to be fidgety and nervous about their daily state. Undoubtedly it is true that the kind of health that thinks itself secure—the health produced by a combination of hard exercise and high living—is apt to be overthrown by a sudden shock. But no arguments will ever persuade those who feel well to take as much trouble about their diet as those who only feel half well; and semi-invalids would often find it a dangerous remedy if they attempted to examine accurately the sensations, physical and mental, that attended on every meal. We do not, of course, mean to deny that the intense enjoyment which a person of healthy body and strong equable mind can derive merely from going through t democratical measure of Local Reform" as into thoughts about the propriety of not mixing his wines at dinner, or the impropriety of making negus with any but the very best port. To a reader in search of health, the portion of the *Original* which treats of parish duties and pauperism seems almost a blank. But it was not so with the author; he was as much interested in one subject as the other, and the result was that he could afford to think about his dinner and his digestion in a degree that would be dangerous for any one who was wholly absorbed in meditating on the state of his health.

be dangerous for any one who was wholly absorbed in meditating on the state of his health.

All Walker's observations on "the Art of Dining" are excellent. His object was to combine the greatest amount of wholesomeness with the greatest amount of pleasantness, and to avoid everything that did not minister to one or the other. He was therefore inexorable in his hostility to mere show. Attendance for the sake of showing off the attendants was his especial aversion. He was not desirous of economy for its own sake, nor did he suppose his readers to be unable to command moderate luxuries. But if they have money to spend, he entreats them to spend it so as to get pleasure and give pleasure by the expenditure. His canons are very simple and very easy to recollect. You are to have all the adjuncts of each course placed on the table before the main dishes are presented. You are to bring up dishes in the order in which they are most acceptable to the palate—game, for instance, is to precede meat. You are to have only what people who know what a good dinner is will really want, and you are not to have much of anything. Like his successor in the art, G. H. M., he is particular in exhorting his followers to have the right wine to the right dish. But there is no affectation of grandeur, and his precepts are much easier to follow than the sacred doctrine of the "four fundamental sauces." He is, however, obliged to own that until people have got used to proper dinners. The way he puts this, or rather the form in which the difficulty presents itself to him, is strangely characteristic. If, he says, you ask a man to a rational dinner and he has been expecting a great

^{*} The Original. By Thomas Walker. London. 1835.

show and a variety of choice, he will, on first seeing what you give him, experience an emotion of disappointment. The first principles of the science, however, forbid you to inflict such a danger on a fellow-creature, for every strong or painful feeling, such as those of suspense and disappointment, may produce a fermentation in the food that has to be digested. But how is this possible fermentation to be avoided? By an honest explanatory note of invitation. Apparently, as one condition of a wholesome dinner is that the guests shall be sociable, there is no harm in producing fermentation in the inside of a guest with whom you have, from the slightness of your acquaintance, no hope of being sociable; for the dinner must, in any case, be perilous, and a little painful surprise cannot do much extra damage. But if the guest is a familiar acquaintance, the host is to bring in a statement of the coming courses into the text of the note. A model note would, he supposes, run thus:—"My dear A. B., will you dine with me on Saturday;—herrings, haunch of mutton, and cranberry tart." In this way the chances of fermentation would be greatly diminished; but we may observe on this point, as with regard diminished; but we may observe on this point, as with regard to the rules of health, that Walker assumes too broadly that every one can do what he could do. A privileged humorist, with a reputation as a connoisseur of cookery, could venture on liberties and oddities which would be annoying and insufferable neerties and oddities which would be annoying and insufferable in commonplace dinner-givers. A large portion of the advice offered in the *Original* is modelled on the pattern of a recommendation given in one of the essays that everybody should get the best joints from the best butchers in London. The author never stops to consider how many "everybodies" could follow this excellent counsel.

No one however, seen year these essays on Health and Diving

this excellent counsel.

No one, however, can read these essays on Health and Dining without profit. There is some part of them that every one can lay to heart. Nor does it lessen their interest to find the author honestly owning that he fulfilled very imperfectly the obligations of his own code. He is one of the frankest of writers, and he repeatedly tells us how the very success of his book made it more and more difficult to go on with it. For he was asked to so many dinners in order that he might criticise and instruct, that he relaxed in his vigilance; and, as he either felt, or believed that he felt, himself unable to write unless he was in full training, he was often very much behindhand with his coming number. From this difficulty he relieved himself, at first by printing letters descriptive of scenery which he had written to friends and relatives on his travels, and then by enormous extracts from a pamphlet he had published long before on one of his hobbies, and which, strange to say, was quite new to the public. The and which, strange to say, was quite new to the public. The volume ends quite abruptly; but it was as well, perhaps, that it stopped where it did. The philosophy of the stomach had received ample justice in its pages, and more than justice it did not need.

AMERICAN LITERATURE.*

THIS is not only a very useful, because well-executed, bibliographical work—it is also a work of much interest to all who are connected with literature. The bulk of it consists of a classified list, with date of publication, size, and price, of all the works, original or translated, which have appeared in the United States during the last forty years; and an alphabetical index facilitates reference to any particular work or author. On the merits of this portion of the work we cannot, of course, be expected to form a judgment. It would require something of the special erudition of Mr. Trübner himself to say how far he has succeeded or fallen short in his undertaking—how few, or how many, have been his omissions. There is one indication, however, of his careful minuteness which suggests the amount of labour that must have been bestowed on the work—namely, the ever, of his careful minuteness which suggests the amount of labour that must have been bestowed on the work—namely, the full enumeration of all the contents of the various Transactions and Scientific Journals. Thus the "Transactions of the American Philosophical Society" from the year 1769 to 1857—no index to which has yet appeared in America—are in this work made easy of reference, every paper of every volume being mentioned scriatim. The naturalist who wishes to know what papers have appeared in the Boston Journal of Natural History during the last twenty years, that is, from its commencement, has only to glance over the five closely-printed pages of this Guide to satisfy himself at once.

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himself at once.

Besides this bibliographical portion, there is an amount of curious information in the Introduction which renders it interesting reading. The sketch of the rise and progress of American literature will suggest many reflections; and the facts respecting the sale of works, original and reprinted, with the rapid increase of original authors during the last few years, are sufficiently startling. Not without significance is the fact that the first two works printed in the United States were a translation and a compilation. The translation was of Ovid's Metamorphoses, by Sandys, a work which has not yet fallen into oblivion; the compilation was the Bay Psalm Book, which has gone through seventy editions. The first original work was a volume of poems by Mrs. Anne Bradstreet, in 1640. From that period till after the separation of the Colonies, literature had but a languid existence in the growing nation.

* Trübner's Bibliographical Guide to American Literature. A Classed List of Books published in the United States during the last Forty Years. With Bibliographical Introduction, Notes, and Index. London: Trübner and Co. 1859.

Nor is this wonderful—there can be no literature without nationality. There does not seem to have been sufficient intellectual ferment in the direction of literature to make a distinct class of authors; and the first man who devoted himself to literature as a profession was Mr. Charles Brockden Brown, in 1793. Nor did the ranks of the new profession increase rapidly. Mr. Trübner's survey shows that there was a gradual advancement in the importance and activity of literature from 1620 to 1820; but it was excessively slow; whereas from 1820 to 1859 the advance has been astonishingly rapid. No subject of human knowledge has been overlooked, and few have not received splendid illustration. Scholarship is perhaps the weakest department of American literature; but even scholarship has not been neglected. In Fiction, Poetry, Travels, History, and Science, America has contributed her quota of distinctive and original thought. There are some names—Washington Irving, Cooper, Hawthorne, Mrs. Stowe, Longfellow, Bryant, Emerson, Edgar Poe—of European celebrity; and among historians, the names of Prescott, Bancroft, Ticknor, and Motley take honourable rank. We are indebted to America for our best grammarian—Lindley Murray—and one of our best lexicographers—Webster.

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Webster.

Without entering here on the discussion as to the absolute value of the contribution to European culture which America has hitherto been enabled to make, it will be enough to notice the fact that a distinctive originality—an American turn of thought—has been at last produced; nor can there be any doubt that in the coming ages this literature will grow into gigantic importance. A beginning has been made. The Americans think for themselves, and write from themselves, not in servile imitation of English models. This must become general, especially now that selves, and write from themselves, not in servile imitation of English models. This must become general, especially now that America is depending less and less upon England for intellectual food. American authors are beginning to find that an honourable independence can be gained. Profits are rising—reprints are diminishing. As early as 1817, Mr. Trübner tells us, authorship was occasionally remunerative, 40,000 dollars having been paid to Noah Webster for his Spelling Book. In 1854 Mr. Bancroft had received 50,000 dollars for his History; and Mr. Barnes 30,000 dollars for his Notes on the Gospel. The house of Messrs. Harper paid 30,000 dollars to Mr. Stephens for his Travels, and 6000 dollars to Professor Andrews for the first edition of his Latin Lexicon; while Professor Anthon has received 30,000 dollars for his classical compilations. A still more liberal remuneration is that made by Messrs. Childs and Patterson of Philadelphia, who paid Dr. Kane's family 60,000 dollars (12,000l.) for the Arctic Explorations. The largest sum, however, is that received by Judge Story—for his valuable legal works, namely, 200,000 dollars. 200,000 dollars.

The secret of these large sums is, of course, the immensity of

The secret of these large sums is, of course, the immensity of the reading public. Everything is on a gigantic scale in America. The publishing establishment of the Messrs. Harper, in New York, covers half-an-acre of ground; its erection cost 40,000 pounds sterling; it gives employment to six hundred persons; and it issues annually two millions of volumes. Of Messrs. Lippincott and Co., in Philadelphia, we learn:—

Lippincott and Co., in Philadelphia, we learn:—

In the first half of 1855, this house had about 10,000 octavo pages of new standard works put into type, and issued from two to fifteen editions of each work. They have the stereotype plates of over 200 volumes, and sell upwards of 50,000 Bibles and Prayer-books every year. Their wholesale customers number about 5000, and for two months of each year they ship about seventy 300lb. boxes of books daily, or ten tons of literature every twenty-four hours. In 1853, their business was estimated at about 2,000,000 dollars. A single Boston house, but recently established, sold in a very short time 26,500 copies of Henry Ward Beecher's Lectures; and the same firm, in the short space of one year, sold 45,000 copies of Shady Side, and in nine months 15,000 copies of Mrs. Child's Life of Hopper. They published 40,000 copies of the Lamplighter in the first two months of its existence, and about 295,000 copies of Uncle Tom's Cabin in all.

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With such a public to be supplied, it is not wonderful that a successful work in America should bring profit as well as fame. It is true there is the formidable rivalry of English reprints; but they also imply the existence of a large public. Mr. Trübner says:—

In the infancy of American publishing, 5cc copies were a good edition. From 1827 to 1837, the ordinary sale of a successful book was from 100 to 1500 copies; whereas now 1500 of any book can be disposed of, and it is not uncommon to print 10,000. The sale of Irving's works is by hundreds of thousands.

thousands.

Small editions, in fact, are the exception; and immense editions of good English works are quite common. There have been sold in the United States in five years, \$0,000 volumes of the octavo edition of the Modern British Essayista; \$6,000 volumes of Macaulay's Miscellasies, in 3 vols.; \$100,000 copies of Grace Aguillar's works in two years; more than \$5,000 of Murray's Encyclopadia of Geography; \$10,000 of M'Culloch's Commercial Dictionary; and \$10,000 of Alexander Smith's Poews in a few months. The American sale of Thackeray's works is quadruple that of England; Dickens' have sold by millions of volumes. Black House alone sold to the amount of \$250,000 copies in volumes, magazines, and newspapers. Bulwer's last work reached about two-thirds of that number, and more than \$100,000 copies of Jane Eyre have been disposed of.

The reader will smile, perhaps, over these statistical indications of

The reader will smile, perhaps, over these statistical indications of the relative value which by the American public seems attached to English works; but the mere existence of such a market for English productions is enough to make every one interested in literature think seriously of the iniquitous system of piracy which permits the English author to be robbed for the benefit of an American publisher, to the detriment of the American author, especially now that an increase in the duty on English books is to render the sale of any but reprints almost impossible.

While touching on this question of reprints, it is important to

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add that a very decided change has silently been growing up in the relative proportions of English and American works printed in the United States since 1820. Mr. Goodrich (Peter Parley) is the authority for the following statement made by Mr. Trübner:—
In 1820 the consumption of American works was 30 per cent.—
of English 70 per cent. In 1830 the American works had risen to 40 per cent—in 1840 to 55 per cent. In 1850 it was 70 per cent,; and in 1856 the amount had increased to 80 per cent. This is a very remarkable statement, and even if we make some allowance for exaggeration, it indicates the progressive development of American literature. While there has been this increase in the activity of American authorship, there has been also an increase in the demand for American books in England. There is scarcely a steam-ship trading between the United States and Liverpool which does not bring its consignment of American books; and the demand is said to be rapidly growing.

Between 1828 and 1850 more than 2000 distinct newspapers were added to those already published in the Union. In 1810 the number of daily papers was only 27. In 1840 the number rose to 138; and in 1850 to 254. Now, if we compare these figures with those furnished by our own country in 1850, we find that 14 papers were published in London, 2 in Dublin, and 1 in Glasgow, there being no others in the United Kingdom. Mr. Trübner adds:—

In 1850, there were 106 newspapers published in New York City. In the

Trübner adds:—

In 1850, there were 106 newspapers published in New York City. In the autumn of 1856 the number had reached 120, with an aggregate annual circulation of 80,000,000 copies, the population at the period being about 850,000. At the same time there were 113 newspapers published in Boston, having a yearly issue of 34,000,000; and 76 in Philadelphia, with a circulation of 48,000,000; making a total in these three cities alone of 209 journals, whose combined annual issue, it is fair to presume, is now 162,000,000 copies. Cincinnati has 30 papers, 16 of which are dailies, with an annual circulation of 9,000,000 of impressions. And although printing was not practised in Minnesota until April, 1849, at a time when nearly the entire country was a wilderness, there were 3 daily journals in St. Paul, in 1856, all well supported, and 31 different newspapers in the Territory. In June, 1857, there were about 20 journals printed in Kansas, not one of which existed in 1853.

Several individual papers in the large cities have an immense circulation. The New York Herald, in June, 1857, had a daily issue of 70,000 copies. The Times circulated 42,000, and the Tribune 29,000 daily. The Sun, a cent paper, published in the same city, had a daily circulation, in 1856, of 50,000.

From three of these establishments dailies, semi-weeklies, and weeklies are issued. The aggregate circulation of one issue of these various editions of the Herald is 100,000 copies. The Public Ledger, a cent paper published at Philadelphia, has a daily circulation of about 65,000.

From the gleanings we have made, the reader will perceive that Trübner adds :-

from the gleanings we have made, the reader will perceive that this Guide to American Literature is something more than a very useful bibliographical work. Those who are competent to undertake searching criticism may perhaps discover errors of omission and commission which have escaped us. We will here note the only mistake which we have found; the very remarkable Lectures on General Pathology, by Mr. John Simon, is no American work, but the reprint of one by the well-known teacher at St. Thomas's Hospital.

THE WORKS OF SHAKSPEARE.

Third Notice.

Third Notice.

MR. DYCE accounts George Steevens "the most acute of commentators" on Shakspeare, and the epithet is not misapplied. Yet, however valuable the quality of acuteness may be as an editorial property, it requires other virtues to temper it, or it will be as likely to mislead as to guide its owner, at least as regards any legitimate issues. The qualities with which Steevens tempered his acuteness were partly of a good kind, and partly of the worst sort. He had, in the first place, zeal in his work. While his octavo edition of Shakspeare (1793) was passing through the press, he might be seen walking from Hampstead to London at break of day in order to welcome the proof sheets of his work. He possessed no ordinary skill in his vocation. With much recondite learning and indefatigable research, he combined a polished style and a vigour of expression second only to that of his colleague Johnson. Moreover, he was an enthusiast for the Drama, even in its humblest forms—watching with sedulous attention the performances of such strolling players as then visited Hampstead, and often contributing to the servants of the scene something more substantial than attention and applause. But these virtues were accompanied and clouded by graver and preponderating faults. His attachments were warm but capricious. The friend of to-day was nearly sure to become the foe of to-morrow, and when once become so, Steevens disdained no art of misrepresentation or defamation. His antipathies were venomous—his asperities were cynical—his eccentricities bordered on madness. Forgiveness once become so. Steevens disdained no art of misrepresentation or defamation. His antipathies were venomous—his asperities were cynical—his eccentricities bordered on madness. Forgiveness of injuries was a virtue unknown to George Steevens, and the vices of the man affected deeply his character as an editor. Between his first and second editions of Shakspeare, Malone, a less able but a far honester man than Steevens, had been working hard to preserve every vestige of the poet's history. He was successful, and thenceforward Steevens became his foe. Because another had gleaned after him, he cast away in wrath nearly all his earlier reapings. In his edition of 1793, he sets out in his advertisement with a declaration of war against the Poems of Shakspeare. "We have not," he says, "reprinted the sonnets, &c., of Shakspeare, because the strongest Act of Parliament that could be framed would fail to compel readers into their service." From this precious verdict, prompted in some degree by ill-will to Malone, it is easy to judge how fit Steevens

was to deal with Romeo and Juliet, As You Like It, &c.; and accordingly, in his later annotations we find the most extraordinary perversities of taste, and the most wilful crotchets in explanation. Mr. Charles Knight, in the following words, has given a just description of the character of "the whipper-in" of the Shakspearian pack:—

of the Shakspearian pack:—

The editors of the first collection of the works of Shakspeare, in their "Address to the great variety of Readers," say—"Read him, therefore: and again and again: and if then you do not like him, surely you are in some manifest danger not to understand him." This was advice that could not have proceeded from any common mind. The foundation of a right understanding of Shakspeare is love. Steevens read again and again without love, and therefore without understanding. He had a pettifogging mind, without a particle of lofty feeling, without imagination, without even a logical apprehension of the small questions to which he applied himself. But he was wonderfully laborious: knowing nothing of the principles of philosophical criticism, he spared no pains in hunting up illustrative facts; he dabbled in classical learning so as to be able to spply a quotation with considerable neatness; and he laboured his style into epigrammatic smartness, which passed for wit. The vicious style of the Letters of Junius was evidently his model; and what that cowardly libeller had been in the political world, Steevens was ambitious to be in the literary. He very often attacked, under a mask, those with whom he mixed in intimate companionship, till at last his name became a by-word for meanness and malignity.

had been in the political world, Steevens was ambitious to be in the literary. Hevery often attacked, under a mask, those with whom he mixed in intimate companionship, till at last his name became a by-word for meanness and malignity.

Such a man, with all his gifts, was utterly devoid of the qualities required in an editor of "the gentle Shakspeare." Of Steevens' remaining colleagues, "Asbolus Hawkins," &c., we shall not speak. Good they could not do, and they were too feeble to work enduring mischief. But, as affording a test of the fitness of them all to illustrate and amend their author, we must indulge in a brief glance at the once famous "Ireland Forgery Case." Of all literary impostures this was the most disgraceful to the dupes entrapped by it. A passion for autographs in Ireland père set to work the cunning hand of Ireland file, and he successfully palmed on his credulous sire Shakspeare's signature to a few trivial documents—such as a receipt for money, a mortgage-deed, &c. Next he aspired to deceive the orthodox, who proved to be neither wiser nor warier than the original dupe. A Protestant Confession of the Faith of William Shakspeare was the next production of his mint, and passages of this precious creed were pronounced by one learned Theban to be finer than any thing in the liturgy of the Church. Then, as a confession of faith might seem unprofessional in a player, Ireland ventured on theatrical memoranda, and these were accepted devoutly by the curious in antiquity. His next strain was in a higher mood, being nothing less than an edition of King Lear with the author's final revisions. Although the pentimentos fathered on Shakspeare equalled or surpassed any known samples of the art of sinking in poetry, they awoke no suspicion in the self-elected bench of judges, who bowed down and worshipped before these relies of their saint. From the servile crowd, indeed, Malone stood honourably aloof, while Dr. Parr lisped and sputtered his admiration, and Porson veiled his incredulity under the general ple

And when this solemn mockery is o'er-

had when this solemn mockery is o'er—
there arose such a storm of hisses as once, according to Milton, had greeted the father of lies after recounting the result of his first great imposture on earth.

Nor should it be forgotten that many of Ireland's dupes were also Chatterton's victims. Between these Robsons and Redpaths of literature there was, indeed, except in their common impudence, little resemblance. Ireland had no learning and little intellect—Chatterton possessed much curious, though ill-assorted lore, and a powerful though ill-regulated fancy. Had Chatterton written Vortigern and Rowena the drama would probably have contained some passages of exquisite harmony, and some of genuine passion. Had Ireland turned penny-a-liner, he must have lived frugally if his wages were to be in proportion to his wit. Chatterton really deserved the appellation of "the marvellous boy." Ireland, bating his sleight of hand, was a poor creature, who began his career with forgery and closed it in writing libels against his own country. Yet the deceptions of the Bristol prodigy ought to have been as "gross, open, and palpable" to men deep in forgotten lore as the devices of the framer of Shakspeare's Confession of Faith. Probably, no person now living believes in the authenticity of Rowley's poems, or even in the existence of "Thomas Rowley, monk of Bristol;" nor would it be worth while attending to so palpable 'a fabrication, had it not revealed the deep ignorance of the deeply learned. Jacob Bryant, the author of a once famous, but long deservedly forgotten System of Ancient

Mythology, the venerable Archdeaeon Mills, and other "guides of public taste," wrote volumes to prove that Rowley was a fact, once embodied in flesh, and Chatterton merely his lucky discoverer and faithful transcriber, and "surely these were honourable men." Yet setting aside the fact that antiquaries should have detected the blots in De Bergham's pedigree, and the false heraldry in Canynge's escutcheon, the least tincture of philology would have revealed the Chattertonian imposture. Let us mark how one little word would, if noted, have hoisted Bryant, the Archdeacon and Co. into mid air. Chatterton puts into a manuscript, alleged to be of the fourteenth century, the word "its"—

Life, and its goods I scorn. Life, and its goods I scorn.

Life, and its goods I scorn.

"Its," says the Dean of Westminster, in his excellent work on English, Past and Present, after noticing the anomalous construction of the word, "does not once occur through the whole of our authorised version of the Bible—occurs only three times in all Shakspeare—was a word unknown to Ben Jonson—was not admitted into his Poems by Milton—and did not come into common use until a few years before Dryden sanctioned it in his writings."

On the whole, to the second order of Shakspearian commentators we assign the credit of much industry, though it was often misemployed—of some shrewdness in correcting the typographical blunders of the folios and quartos—and the sterling merit of bringing to light again indirectly many gems of our early literature. But against this balance in favour we set off an adverse account of ignorance of the mind of Shakspeare and of the canons of poetic art, of incompetence in philology, of self-glorification, and the desire to make Shakspeare write as Rowe did write and as Johnson approved. We must now pass on to the third class of critics, who appeared within the first twenty years of the present century:—

century:—
Charles Lamb and William Hazlitt [says Mr. Knight] led the way in approaching Shakspeare with love, with deep knowledge, with surpassing acuteness, with unshackled minds. But a greater arose. A new era of critical opinion upon Shakspeare, as propounded by Englishmen, may be dated from the delivery of the lectures of Samuel Taylor Coleridge, at the Surrey Institution, in 1814. What that great man did for Shakspeare can scarcely be appreciated by the public. For his opinions were not given to the world in formal treatises and pondorous volumes. They were fragmentary; they were scuttered, as it were, at random; many of them were the oral lessons of that wisdom and knowledge which he poured out to a few admiring disciples.

Yet although Coleridge thus cast his bread upon the waters.

admiring disciples.

Yet although Coleridge thus cast his bread upon the waters, his labour was not in vain. It has been said that the influence of Raphael extended even to sign-painters, and the impress of Coleridge may be seen in all subsequent English criticism. For he it was who first brought to the elucidation of Shakspeare the spirit of a poet and a philosopher. He first distinctly proclaimed that the judgment of Shakspeare was not less remarkable than his imaginative power, and that, inasmuch as he was the greatest, he was also the most perfectly developed of all dramatic writers. his imaginative power, and that, inasmuch as he was the greatest, he was also the most perfectly developed of all dramatic writers. He, next after Dryden, but on higher grounds and with more convincing reasons, showed that Shakspeare was the poet of all time, as well à parte ante as à parte post, and not of the Elizabethan era alone. He first enunciated the truth that, to apprehend the Shakspearian drama it is less necessary to consider what the poet had read, or what his contemporaries wrote, than to strive, in explaining his obscurities, to understand the rules which have consciously or unconsciously guided all the masterpoets of the world, from him who celebrated the wrath of Achilles to him who infused into the legend of Faustus a grandeur surpassing that of the legend of Prometheus.

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Lamb and Hazlitt were worthy coadjutors of Coleridge. The fine instincts, the warm human sympathies and childlike spirit of the former rendered him an apt interpreter of the most catholic and impassioned of poets; while the sparkling eloquence and vivid fancy of the latter, though he lacked many of the higher qualities of an expositor, enabled him, perhaps in a larger measure than either Coleridge or Lamb, to familiarize the public with just conceptions of the "myriad-minded" bard. The impression commenced by the English critics was confirmed by the Lectures of William Schlegel; and although the German commentators on the poet are too often super-subtle, and wander into infinite space for meanings which lie at their feet, yet we have much cause to acknowledge with gratitude such auxiliaries to our native forces as Tieck, Ulrici, and Gervinus.

(To be continued.)

(To be continued.)

MURCHISON'S SILURIA.

Second Notice.

THE chief additions made to the palæontology of the Uppermost Beds of Siluria are the discovery of some true fishes below and in the "Bone bed," and of a number of portentous crustaceans, which must at that time have been the "pride of the ocean," for they were not less than seven or eight feet long. These were the *Pterygoti*. When trilobites were dying away—for they had certainly lost their prestige before the Silurian age had closed—a more gigantic tribe of crustacea, perhaps of higher type, seem for a while to have taken their place. And the book tells us of several species, of all sizes, from the bulk above mentioned down to as many inches. Wonderful, if true, for no living lobster can hold a candle to them; and they seem to have been thick as leaves in Vallombrosa. We should have been slow to credit this, had we not the opportunity of seeing specimens in the Museum of Practical Geology—bodies, tails, legs, pincers (they carried these, it seems, on their heads, and frightful trenchant weapons they

were, full of sharp teeth), great compound eyes, feelers, everything that is wanted to make up one of the crab family complete. The fish is a remarkable form, closely allied to the Cephalaspis of the Old Red, and, being found below the "Bone bed" in the true Ludlow Rock, is thus the oldest of known fish. But its relics are few and far between, while the Pterygoti are in myriads. And so the Silurian system ends as it began, with crustacea; while the few scanty fishes are but the sketchings out of what was to come next, for the "Old Red Sandstone" is emphatically an "age of fish."

It is a mispomer to call this book Siluria. More than half its

while the few scanty fishes are but the sketchings out of what was to come next, for the "Old Red Sandstone" is emphatically an "age of fish."

It is a misnomer to call this book Siluria. More than half its pages are a condensed summary of all that is known respecting the higher palæozoic rocks. Before those upper rocks are described, there is a chapter devoted to Ireland and Scotland, and in the latter a most important amendment is given to the old geology, which must be noticed. The demarcation of the strata has long been known in a general way for Ireland, thanks to the persevering labours of one veteran geologist, Dr. (now Sir Richard) Griffith. But what he had done for Ireland, M'Culloch had not done for Scotland, and the map of the Highlands was but a tangled web, in part mineralogical, in part geological, but in great part not logical at all. Like Wamba's head, it wanted turning upside down to make it come right; and by a similar process, in two or three laborious summers, Sir Roderick has placed what was the Uppermost Old Red Sandstone of the west coast at the very base of the whole Scottish series. In so doing, he has shown that his native country possesses not only a complete sequence of the Lower Palæozoic rocks, but that these (metamorphosed in their upper portions into the puzzling gneiss and mica schist of central Scotland) rest at their base on a still older series of like rocks, on whose truncated edges lie, first, Cambrian conglomerate in mountain masses, then quartz rock, limestone, quartz rock again, mica schist, &c. &c. Nowhere in all Britain is there so good a base to the Silurian series; and it is with just pride the author may look on a second whole territory restored to order and geologic certainty—and this from a vague chaos of mineralogical facts which had been long obscuring the country of Playfair and Hutton.

Then we are taken to Ireland, where the light shed on the North West Highlands is beginning to be reflected upon Connemara and Donegal. There will soon be no such a thing as a

tion of the Llandovery rock species. Many new facts and new fossils are added, which it is not necessary to notice here. The fresh discoveries in the North Scottish limestones, however, claim a passing remark. According to Mr. Salter, they do not correspond, by a single species, with any known further south. One reason of this is, that their arenaceous and calcareous beds represent strata which are not very fossiliferous in Wales and Ireland, and which, deposited in deeper water, are chiefly black shale. But they do correspond in mineral condition with the contemporaneous strata in North America, and, strange to say, they contain many of the same fossils. Had these old seas a common coast line? for these are the sand-banks and the pebble-beds of the Silurian ocean. Some American species are known to have ranged to Ireland which yet did not reach Wales, and, in like manner, some may have crept along the Atlantic shore as far as Scotland, while deep seas intervened between more Southern localities. We cannot explain it otherwise.

And now, leaving Siluria proper, the work takes a different course, and in a much more general way passes over the great formation of Old Red Sandstone, which comes next in ascending order. Following Sir Roderick's new classification, which seems a great improvement on the old, we begin with a lower group, containing those bizarre forms of fish, the Cephalaspis and Pteraspis. These were thought by Hugh Miller to lie in the middle division, though he could nowhere see them above the bituminous flags, which here are made out to be the second or middle group. This was clearly the wrong place. Hugh Miller's acute judgment could not but remark on the strange fact that the upper and lower divisions should have their fish so like, while the middle or Cephalaspis beds differed widely from either. But put this so-called middle division or Ceithness flags, and chiefly by the labours of Mr. John Miller and Mr. Robert Dick of Thurso. The flags promise, too, to be the source of an industrial commerc

We were about to pass over the history of the coal deposits. We think there is something very striking and natural in the little view of the coal vegetation given in page 305. It embodies, to our notion, the very beau ideal of the heavy clogged atmosphere and dank miasmatal swamps of the coal period. Say what philosophere will, there must have been more carbonic acid in the air before those millions of cubic yards of it were fixed, in black solid masses, in the crust. And if (as the appendix would teach us) the plants grew on the sea margin, ducked by each sluggish tide in close putrid seas—and liked that sort of thing—we seem to get an explanation of all the phenomena observable in the coal. It has ever been a mystery how there could be such endless changes of land and sea as is implied by the constant alternations of ferns and Nautili—groves of calamites with shark-like fish—and trunks of large club-mosses with deep sea shells. But fringe the seaboard thickly with Lepidodendron swamps, and dam out the ocean by sand-bars, and there is cause enough for all the turbid shale and dark fætid limestone; and on the tuffets, and hags, and sand-banks of such a jungle there might be room enough for any number of ferns, and even for the growth of those strange conifers which are so rife in the coal. We have nowhere met with so good an explanation of the fact.

The Permian chapter is one of the most elaborate, for the author took special pilgrimages during two summers to work up the subject which he began in Russia seventeen years ago. The name Permian seems to be generally accepted for that varied group of sands, marls, and limestones which are now so well understood as separate from the New Red Sandstone—two contiguous systems of red sandstone and marl, with scarcely a fossil in common. The one is the natural termination of the Carboniferous

systems of red sandstone and marl, with scarcely a fossil in common. The one is the natural termination of the Carboniferous

common. The one is the natural termination of the Carboniferous group, the other the base of the secondary system. Chapter xiii. is full of interesting and new matter, and no one who visits Eisenach and the Harz, with this book for a guide, will fail to get a better appreciation of the Permian group, and of the labours of our German scientific brethren in the heart of Europe. One could almost wish to be shut up with Luther in the castle of Wartburg, on easy parole, to study on the spot that stratum so hard to pronounce, but rich in geologic lore—the Rothe-todteliegendes.

It may be well to say here, that while we have a very perfect representation of the German series in Durham, much of what used to be thought New Red or Bunter Sandstone in the midland counties is now assuming a darker tint on our maps,

of what used to be thought New Red or Bunter Sandstone in the midland counties is now assuming a darker tint on our maps, and becoming Permian. It will be labour for English geologists for the next ten years (while landed proprietors are boring it for coal) to develop the fossil riches or poverty of these sandy tracts. They ought to contain a good flora, for Göppert has found already nearly 200 species of plants in this formation alone, and not thirty of these are the same as those of the coal. There are some curious notes on the lizards of the period in page 303, well worth reading. These creatures seem to have been of high organization.

We have now got half through the work, and our notes on the foreign rocks of primeval age need not be very lengthened. The great work on Russia, to which allusion is made in the dedication, is naturally a favourite with the author, and he dwells

the foreign rocks of primeval age need not be very lengthened. The great work on Russia, to which allusion is made in the dedication, is naturally a favourite with the author, and he dwells with satisfaction on some new contributions to the science by friends in Christiania and St. Petersburg, which tend to show a very close similarity between the various subformations of the Silurian System in Britain and in these remote countries. It is to be observed that the Middle Silurian, or Pentamerus zone, occupies in both the same place—viz., the base of the Upper Silurian. And the uppermost layers of the latter are tenanted in Russia, as in England, by the Pterygotus or Eurypterus in shoals, mixed with fish, Cephalaspis, and some allied genera, which mark the passage into the Devonian rocks. There is an inflammable shale under the chief limestone of St. Petersburg which might surely yield oil, like the Caithness flag mentioned above. The German merchant princes of Esthonia must set to work and distil it. There are triumphant evidences in this wide empire for the security of the Devonian System, and its identification with the veritable Old Red Sandstone of Scotland. There are not wanting critics, some of them good geologists, who assert that there is no proof of this identity. But when we are told that the fish of Scotland and the shells of Devonshire are found together in hand specimens in the Russian deposits, there must surely be an end of such criticism. It is still a fair ground of inquiry whether the Great Red Sandstones of our own islands did or did not owe their origin to lake deposits. Mr. Austen thinks they did; and there is but little contrary evidence. The fish in Russia might have been drifted into estuaries, or they might have frequented both river and sea, as the sturgeon does at the present day. At page 385, Sir Roderick teaches his Russian friends how to find coal on the Donetz.

And now, having gone through Russia, and touched, but not crossed, the ridge of the Balkans, Sir Roderick

coal on the Donetz.

And now, having gone through Russia, and touched, but not crossed, the ridge of the Balkans, Sir Roderick turns homeward through Germany. The wide fields and mountain ridges of Austria, Bohemia, and Saxony, have all been visited by his audacious hammer; and the Grauwacke is abused in no measured terms by his fluent pen. It is a heterogeneous assemblage, only to be deciphered by the key which it is the author's great merit always to keep by his side—Smith's old principle, the identification of strata by organic remains. Rocks that look as old as the Cambrian grits turn out to be of the age of our coal fields, and may yet yield fuel to the German firesides. And clays and sands so incoherent and soft as to bear

comparison with those of Herne Bay or Sheerness, are by the same unerring guide shown to be as old as the slates of Snowdon. The very same rocks which lie so unbroken and flat in Russia that it is a positive weariness to ride over them, when turned up and contorted in the flanks of the Ural chain, are hard limestones, contorted clay slate, dolomitic crags, and gold-bearing quartz rocks, but the fossils are alike in both. There is an oasis in this undulating desert of hard grits and sterile slates when the traveller reaches Prague. There resides a gentleman who has devoted the best part of his life (twenty-four years) to the elucidation and description of his native country. It is a perfect mine of fossils. He has already published over two hundred and fifty species of Trilobites—a group of fossil animals now receiving much attention at the hands of naturalists—and he has discovered the early stages of several of these. In fact, he has traced some from the egg, and many through their metamorphoses to the adult state. The same with other groups of animals. The Nautilus, or what looks like one, has had its history far better made out than has its living representative. And we look with impatience for his promised work, which is to show us a world of new old forms of this Nautilus family—straight, club-shaped, curved, bent, spiralor scroll-shaped, four hundred or five hundred species. Some of them, we are told, contain the original animal matter. If M. Barrande's new volumes only equal the one he has already produced, the study of these old inhabitants of the world will become as easy as the reading of a book of modern natural history, and fully as pleasant.

The author of the Bassin Silurien de la Bohéme (and Sir Roderick seems as proud of his achievements as if they were his own) finds a complete Silurian succession in this little basin not ten miles broad, which is quite easily paralleled with thain the miles broad, which is quite easily paralleled with thain the ten miles broad, which is quite easily paralleled

made a beginning; but there are few able to follow out his pregnant suggestions.

The Devonian and Carboniferous tracts of Central Germany and of the Rhine are far more extensive and important than the Silurian (the latter barely comes to day in a few places in the Harz, amid a heap of newer "grauwacke"), and large works have been written on the Rhenish Provinces alone, Sir Roderick with Sedgwick leading the way. The present volume does not add materially to our knowledge of these rocks, but it contains a table (p. 433) giving a most clear and connected view of the whole Upper Palæozoic series for Europe—localities, characteristic fossils, &c., up to the present condition of the subject. It is a book, and a very readable one, in itself.

America, very naturally, has a chapter to herself, and is found to adhere in the New World to the palæozoic "institutions" of the mother country. But their development, like that of the vast continent they characterize, is enormous; and American science

to adhere in the New World to the paleozoic "institutions" of the mother country. But their development, like that of the vast continent they characterize, is enormous; and American science has been foremost in investigating them. Each of the principal States has lent a hand in the work. The labours of Hall, and Emmons, and Vanuxem, in New York—of Dale Owen and his companions in the far West—and of our own Logan in Canada, have extended the survey over very wide areas of the Continent. And they have proved a wonderful identity in the succession (albeit with some wide variations) with our own Silurian rocks. We might instance the occurrence of a thick sandstone, charged with Lingula, at the base. A series of limestones with great Orthoceratites represent the horizon of the Llandeilo flags, and contain, among other things, the massive shell Maclurea, which, strange to say, has been found on the west of Scotland, along with a number of other Silurian American types, and nowhere else in Britain. Then follow Trenton limestone and the Hudson River slates—the very counterpart of our Caradoc rocks; and these are succeeded by a most characteristic Pentamerus zone—the famous Clinton group, full of the common species which we meet with in the dales of Shropshire. Again, the limestone of Niagara might have been dug out of the caverns of Dudley, so like are its contents to those of our own Wenlock rocks. But above this celebrated stratum, over which Niagara pours its waters, the resemblance to the rocks of our British series fails; and though in a general way we may call the Helderberg series Ludlow, we do not find the mud-beds and the deep water coral beds, and the sandbanks, "bone bed" and plant beds, of our own Shropshire district. On the contrary, a great gypsum formation, with much salt, occupies the place of our Lower Ludlow; and the limestones predominate so much over beds of other character as to make the whole a calcareous series. But these differences in the Ludlow rocks do not make them less the Ludlow rocks, hem

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These last, indeed, form a magnificent group, and the chief part of them are not at all unlike the rocks of Devon, or of the Rhine—shelly sandstones, shales and limestones, while their uppermost member is a formation there is no mistaking—the conglomerate of the Old Red itself. This conglomerate forms finer mountains in the Catskill range than in the Fans of Brecon. It is marked (so Ramsay tells us) by the grooves of ancient glaciers, and frowns over the Hudson for many a mile, bringing back to the emigrant the scenery of his home, and delighting the eye of the geologist, who finds in so distant a region the unequivocal counterpart of strata he knows well in Britain. It is this mingling of the new with the old—the recurrence of familiar phenomena among much that is different and strange—which makes the labour of the geologist so pleasant. That the author feels this, and that his aim is to make others perceive the delight of geological truth, is manifest in every page of the book.

We must skip the gold chapter, though to many this will be a very interesting one. Sir Roderick still connects gold with Silurian rather than with any other palseozoic rock. The treasures are all in his own territory. As we do not know enough about it to contradict him, strange and unlikely as it seems at first sight, we must leave the subject in other hands.

It is not customary to discuss the merits of an appendix, even though it be forty pages long. This one is no exception to the rule that the postscript usually contains the cream of the letter. The table of Silurian fossils, including all the recognisable British species, is worth notice. The hint of a new branch of industry for Scotland, in the distillation of its fish-laden flagstones, has been already adverted to. There are notes of additions made to the oldest rocks while the work was passing through the press—from Ireland, Wales, and Malvern. Even Newfoundland now possesses its "primordial zone." Notes on coal, on Silurian fish, on Old Red Sandstone plants, and, not least, a additional woodcuts of fossils, a coloured frontispiece, and an entire revision of the map, enough will have been said to show

entire revision of the map, enough will have been said to show that we have before us a really new and very important contribution to our geological knowledge.

But we must say one word on the price. We do not grudge parlour geologists a handsome volume, with large print and good margins, and solid paper. But we do plead on behalf of hundreds who must read this work somehow, and who would gladly buy and take it with them to the field. Why not give us, when this edition is out, a closer-printed pocket volume, such as may fitly go side by side with Lyell's manual? To that admirable work, dealing as it does so largely with the secondary and tertiary strata, the present volume is a fit supplement.

PAINTING POPULARLY EXPLAINED.

PAINTING POPULARLY EXPLAINED.*

Well-timed publication than the unpretending little manual lately put forth by Messrs. Gullick and Timbs under this title. The latter of these gentlemen is well known as the compiler of various excellent books of reference. His great experience of the tastes and needs of the reading public has shown him that there is a demand for some familiar explanation of the processes and technical terms of the painter's art, as well as for a sketch of its history; and, with the aid of an artist temporarily incapacitated by an accident from the practice of his profession, he has, in this volume, very successfully supplied the want. That such a book is needed, in the opinion of so competent a judge, is in itself a very hopeful sign of the growing interest taken by the public in questions affecting the Fine Arts.

Happily, of late years critics and writers have condescended to speak of matters of art in ordinary language; and a too obtrusive use of technical terms would now be universally laughed at. Even Dr. Waagen has been irreverently suspected of sometimes hiding the inanity of his matter under the magniloquence of his phraseology. Such solemn-sounding words as megilp and impasto naturally awe the uninitiated. The table-talk of artists and their familiar letters are still too often full of professional slang, spiced with scraps of foreign languages picked up at the Caffe de Greci. But it is beginning to be understood that pure and simple English is able to convey all that is worth knowing about a statue or a picture; and such subjects, in proportion as they have lost their mystery, have become popular. However, some technical terms there must be in every science; and no one can profitably pursue a discussion as to any of the various branches of the art of the painter without some acquaintance with the technical terms there must be in every science; and no one can profitably pursue a discussion as to any of the various branches of the art of the painter without some acquaintance with the words used to express the processes employed. To all such persons we can warmly recommend this modest little book. They will find in it, in an intelligible form, all that is necessary for general inquirers to learn. Knowing the almost universal ignorance that prevails on the subject, our authors condescend to describe the painter's materials, his implements, the method of working, and the usual arrangements and fittings of the studio. Any person of common intelligence could gather from this book a fair knowledge, not only of the nature of the mechanical pro-

cesses, but of the theory and the history of art. And we are bound to say that the disquisitions, though necessarily very succinct, are accurate and judicious, and, with some exceptions, remarkable for their perspicuity. But, in a literary point of view, we must lament the numerous uncorrected misprints of Italian and French words. And one unbanny Hebrew word, borrowed in a note words. And one unhappy Hebrew word, borrowed in a note from M. de Laborde, is strangely disguised by the printer, with three wrong letters out of five—whereas there ought to be only four altogether.

from M. de Laborde, is strangely disguised by the printer, with three wrong letters out of five—whereas there ought to be only four altogether.

As for the order, painting in tempera occupies of right the first place, as being the earliest known process. It is so named, we read, "because the colours are 'tempered,' or mixed with and diluted by a 'medium' to a proper consistence to be conveniently taken by and applied with the brush, and to adhere to the surface, this medium being neither oil nor simply water." The various vehicles, or media, employed by the early Italian artists, the grounds on which they painted, the gilding, the mysteries of hatching and stippling, the varnishes and the pigments most in use, are described in succession; and then the encaustic, or wax-painting of antiquity, is noticed, with a discreet avoidance of any attempt to explain the confused and contradictory accounts handed down to us concerning it. Next we have an admirable sketch of the history of the practice of these forms of art by the Egyptians, the Assyrians, the Greeks, the Etruscans, and the Romans, followed by a brief notice of the earliest Christian painting in the Catacombs, to the Byzantine style of art, and to the Italian revival of Cimabue and Giotto, down to the introduction of oil-painting. The authors, pursuing a chronological order, post-pone their account of pure fresco-painting, though it was contemporaneous with the later use of tempera, till they have noticed mediæval mosaic and glass painting. Speaking of modern attempts to recover the practice of encaustic, they remark that Mr. Parris, in his late restorations of the pictures by Sir James Thornhill in the dome of St. Paul's, is represented as having used a wax vehicle, which he calls his "marble medium."

Mosaic painting, as practised by the ancients, and by the two Christian Schools of Italy and Byzantium, forms the subject of the next chapter; and then follows an account of miniature painting, properly so called—that is, the art of the illuminator. Under thi

portraits. But it must be observed that this classification is somewhat deceptive; for in nothing but smallness of scale have the works of Sir William Ross or Mr. Thorburn any special affinity to the illuminations of such famous "limners" of old as Don Silvestro Camaldolese or Girolamo dai Libri. However, the works of Sir William Ross or Mr. Thorburn any special affinity to the illuminations of such famous "limners" of old as Don Silvestro Camaldolese or Girolamo dai Libri. However, the section on coloured photographs is so exceedingly judicious and instructive that we are truly glad to welcome it, in spite of its awkward misplacement in this chronological sketch of the history of art. We quite agree with our authors that the fashionable practice of colouring photographic portraits, though undoubtedly it absorbs, at highly remunerative wages, a large and increasing number of artists, will in the long run inevitably bring about the decay of the true art of bona fide miniature painting. "The practice of colouring photographs," they observe, "almost precludes real artistic advancement in any direction. The peculiar hue of the photograph vitiates the eye for correctly appreciating colour without the accustomed groundwork; and power of drawing is necessarily lost from its never being called into requisition. Thus the photographic colourist after a time, when left to his own resources, must find how insidiously injurious and delusive is the influence of his employment upon his character and progress as an independent artist." The subject is pursued very convincingly. It is shown that the photographic process is invaluable for its data of facts; and that an "untouched" photograph, when properly understood, is beyond comparison the most faithful and suggestive "plan, chart, or map," of the human countenance—a groundwork of fact, upon which memory may recall, or imagination construct, an ideal likeness of which the stranger or the inexperienced observer will have no conception. The truth is, that the highest skill of the artist can really convey a more truthful idea of form than the unthinking camera; for it can correct those almost imperceptible faults which in a photographic image arise from the different focal distances of objects and the convexity of the lenses. It is this inherent defect in the photographic process

the essential characteristic and the inimitable excellence of a sunpainting, is wholly destroyed by the addition of paint.

We come now to Fresco-painting—so called from its being executed upon the last coat of plaster while it is freshly laid on the wall, and still wet. The account of this process is full and accurate; but we do not observe that the fact of a crystallization taking place over the painted surface is mentioned. That fresco is the highest form of the painter's art is thoroughly comprehended and boldly enunciated by our authors; and the history of the Italian development is very agreeably traced from the

^{*} Painting Popularly Explained; including Fresco, Oil, Tempera, Mosaic, Encaustic, Water-Colour, Miniature, Missal, Painting on Pottry, Porcelain, Enamel, Glass, &c. With Historical Sketches of the Progress of the Art. By Thomas John Gullick, Painter, and John Timbs, F.S.A. London: Kent and Co. 1859.

time of Masaccio to the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel and the stanze of the Vatican, and onwards, through the Venetians and the Eelecties, to the modern revival of the art in our own times, in the decoration of the Chevalier Bertholdy's house at Rome by Cornelius, and the later introduction of the style at Munich and Berlin, and in our own Houses of Parliament. It would have been far better, in our opinion, in the arrangement of this book, to have separated the history of painting from the description of the technical processes. Here, for example, the great wall-paintings in oil by Tintoretto, and Delaroche's "Hemicycle" in the Palais des Beaux Arts, are described under the head of freeco merely because their vastness seems to take them out of freeco merely because their vastness seems to take them out of freeco merely because their vastness seems to take them out of freeco merely because their vastness seems to take them out of freeco merely because their vastness seems to take them out of freeco merely because their vastness seems to take them out of freeco merely because their vastness seems to take them out of freeco merely because their vastness seems to take them out of freeco merely because their vastness seems to take them out of freeco merely because their vastness seems to take them out of freeco merely because their vastness seems to take them out of freeco merely because their vastness and implements, the vehicles, oils, and varnishes, the qualities of canvas and panels, the grounds, colours, and various manipulative processes, are all minutely described—followed, as usual, by an historical sketch of the method of the oil-painters before the Van Eycks, of the great discovery of these celebrated brothers, and of the early and late schools of Flanders, Germany, Italy, and Holland, and the schools of Spain, France, and England. Finally, the method and history of water-colour painting, are noticed; and an appendix treats of a number of such subsidiary subjects as Scenapainting, Temple and Statue-paintin

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will shortly become vacant by the resignation of one of our present members, Mr.
Wigram.

There is but one reply which I can make to so flattering a call, and that is to place
myself unreservedly in the hands of the Members of the Senate, and to await their
decision.

myseit unreservoiry in the hands of the members of the senate, and to await their decision.

With respect to my qualifications, I should for my own part rather appeal to past acts during the three Parliaments in which I have already served, than rest my claim for support upon the extent of my promises for the future. I may, however, assure the Members of the Senate of my earnest attachment to our Constitution in Church and State.

To democratic change I am steadfastly opposed: while I look to amelioration con-

and State.

To democratic change I am steadfastly opposed: while I look to amelioration continuously and prudently applied, as the means by which, under Divine Providence, the body politic may best be kept in order. I deprecate extremes, while in politics and in religion I have always urged the adoption of moderate and tolerant views, convinced as I am that by such methods our State has grown to its present grandeur, and that so long only as it keeps the middle path will it exist prosperous at home and powerful abroad. I have accordingly abstained from binding myself to party organizations. On the support of candid men of various shades of opinion, who desire to see the University represented by one who would make its business and its interests his own, and would watch over its welfare with no conflicting objects to distract his assiduity, I venture to rely for success.

I am. Gentlemen.

I am, Gentlemen,
With great respect,
Your faithful and obedient servant,

A. J. B. BERESFORD HOPE,
Arklow House, Connaught-place, March 29, 1859.

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